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ABSTRACT

This study is an assessment of the current status of world history instruction in American secondary schools and an attempt to detect trends in the teaching of this subject. The report is divided into the following sections: 1) Introduction; 2) Historical Development of the World History Course; 3) Criticisms of the World History Course; 4) External Organization; 5) Objectives; 6) Internal Organization; 7) Teaching Strategies; 8) Materials; and 9) Teacher Preparation. Citations from related research support the textual material in each section and graphic illustrations serve to clarify and summarize the findings of the study. (Author/SHM)

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THE STATUS OF WORLD HISTORY INSTRUCTION IN AMERICAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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I: INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study is to assess the current status of world history instruction in American secondary schools and to detect trends in the teaching of this subject. The report is divided into nine sections:

I. Introduction
II. Historical Development of the World History Course
III. Criticisms of the World History Course
IV. External Organization
V. Objectives
VI. Internal Organization
VII. Teaching Strategies
VIII. Materials
IX. Teacher Preparation

During the past fifteen years, a number of surveys have been conducted to determine course offerings, enrollment, and curricular trends in the social studies. These surveys provide useful data about important aspects of the world history course. Some of the surveys have been conducted on a nationwide basis, while others have been limited to a region, state, or city. In 1960-61, the U.S. Office of Education conducted a survey of offerings and enrollment in public secondary schools (HEW, 1965a). One year later, the Office of Education collected the same type of information about non-public secondary schools (HEW, 1965b). These data can be compared with similar data the federal government has been collecting since 1890 of offerings and enrollments in high school subjects to determine trends in the world history course with respect to the number of schools offering the subject and to enrollment. Annual studies were made from 1890 to 1906. Since that time, studies have been made for the years 1910, 1915, 1922, 1928, 1934, and 1949.

The reliability of statistics always presents a problem for the researcher. Figures published by the Office of Education concerning the number of offerings and enrollment in world history courses are no exception. Fortunately, other studies have been made at the national, regional, and local levels, the findings of which can be used to check the reliability of statistics presented by the Office of Education. The non-governmental studies are valuable also because the private researchers frequently were interested in problems which the Office of Education did not investigate. For example, some studies provide information about the formal training of world history teachers and strategies used in teaching the course, two important issues about which the Office of Education did not collect information. Insofar as

space has permitted, the significant findings of the studies described below have been included in this report.

In 1962, Willis D. Moreland, Associate Professor of Secondary Education at the University of Nebraska, conducted a survey of 500 secondary schools scattered throughout the United States in order to determine curricular trends in the social studies. His report is based on a return of 281 questionnaires (56 percent) (Moreland, 1962, pp. 73-76).

One year later, another national survey was conducted by four employees of the Educational Testing Service in Princeton, New Jersey (Anderson and others, 1964). This survey was designed to determine courses and practices in secondary school social studies programs. This report was based on questionnaire returns from 388 public schools (grades 7-12), 248 Catholic schools (grades 9-12), and 233 independent schools (grades 7-12).

In November, 1962, Bertram A. Masia, Assistant Professor of Education at the University of Chicago, surveyed 400 public and private schools accredited by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools for the 1961-62 school year (Masia, 1963, pp. 205-213). The 400 schools were selected at random from a master list of 3,587 schools. Three hundred sixty-eight (or 92 percent) of the sample returned completed questionnaires. The chief purpose of the survey was to identify the major outlines of the secondary school social studies curriculum in the nineteen-state accrediting area of the North Central Association.

In addition to the national and regional surveys that have been made of the social studies curriculum, a number of state studies also exist, some of which were concerned exclusively with the teaching of world history. In 1957, the Illinois Council for the Social Studies launched a study to determine the status of the world history course in the secondary schools of Illinois (ICSS, 1957). Among other things, this study was interested in the grade placement of the world history course, internal organization, teaching strategies, and materials. Questionnaires were sent to 338 teachers, of which 221 (65 percent) were returned.

In 1958, Howard Mehlinger, who is now Director of the High School Government Project at Indiana University, conducted a survey of a representative sample of Kansas high schools which taught world history

(Mehlinger, 1959). Mehlinger was particularly interested in the internal organization of the world history course. He wanted to know if teachers organized their course chronologically, topically, by regions, or around current events. His findings were based on a 60 percent return of the questionnaire. In 1961-62, Eldon E. Snyder, Associate Professor of Sociology at The Kansas State Teachers College in Emporia, conducted a more broadly based survey of the social studies curriculum in Kansas secondary schools (Snyder, 1964, pp. 152-154). These two studies give a comprehensive picture of the status of the world history course in the social studies curriculum of Kansas schools.

A study of the world history course in the secondary schools of California was made by Allan Siemers in 1959. The purposes of Siemers' study were to determine the existing curricular structure and to survey methods and materials being used in the world history course in California high schools (Siemers, 1959). Siemers designed his study so that metropolitan and non-metropolitan schools were proportionately represented in the study. Siemers' study, which was undertaken as a doctoral dissertation, is the most extensive work of its kind.

A study of the status of Arizona secondary school social studies programs was conducted in 1962 by Nelson L. Haggerson and Del Weber, Professors of Education at Arizona State University. The purpose of the Arizona study was to determine offerings, patterns of required and elective courses, and current trends and emphases in the social studies programs for grades seven through twelve. The Arizona study also included a survey of teacher preparation, methods and materials, and evaluation techniques used in social studies courses (Haggerson and Weber, 1963).

For her doctoral degree at Auburn University, Hazel A. Peterson conducted a study of the teaching of world history in selected secondary schools in Arkansas and Mississippi. Peterson was interested particularly in the content of world history courses in the schools, placement of world history in the curriculum, and the preparation of world history teachers (Peterson, 1967).

In order to get data as up-to-the-minute as possible to compare with data presented in the older studies, the writer conducted a survey in December, 1968, of thirty secondary schools in Delaware. The questionnaire

was structured to provide data on teacher preparation, course placement, internal organization, objectives, and teaching strategies.

In 1953, a survey of the social studies offerings in cities with a population of 100,000 or more was made by Emlyn Jones, Professor of History and Education at the University of Wisconsin in Madison; he conducted a follow-up study in 1961, using questions that were almost identical to those used in the 1953 survey (Jones, 1963, pp. 17-18). Jones sent his questionnaire to school systems in all 130 cities in the United States of 100,000 or more population. He received a 100 percent return.

The surveys described above were used extensively in this report to determine the current status of the world history course. Since the findings of all of these studies were made on the basis of data collected on questionnaires, they share all the weaknesses that are characteristic of that instrument. In addition, these surveys have the common failing of not assessing innovations in the teaching of world history that have been introduced as a result of the revolution that has taken place in the social studies in the early and mid-sixties. This revolution was touched off by a series of social studies projects funded by the U.S. Office of Education and private agencies. (For a listing of these projects, see Social Education. Vol. 31 (October, 1967) pp. 509-511.) This report tries to take into account some of these innovations and attempts to assess what impact they may have on the teaching of world history in the 1970s.

II: HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE WORLD HISTORY COURSE

The world history course in American schools began in 1821, when a course called "General History" was introduced in a Boston high school. The subsequent growth of the course was rapid. Nevertheless, historians and educators alike were never satisfied with it. In the 1890s, the National Education Association (NEA) and the American Historical Association (AHA) made separate recommendations for the scope and sequence of history courses in the schools. Neither set of recommendations included general history.

The NEA was the first to act late in 1894 when its Committee of Ten, which included three historians, recommended the establishment of the following program for grades seven through twelve (NEA, 1894, p. 163):

7. American history, and elements of civil government.
8. Greek and Roman history, with their oriental connections.
9. French hisotry (to be taught so as to elucidate the general movements of medieval and modern history).
10. English history (to be taught so as to elucidate the general movements of medieval and modern history).
11. American history.
12. A special period, studies in an intensive manner, and civil government.

The report of the Committee of Ten had significant influence on the history program of the schools. A comparison of selected courses of study in 1894 and in 1904, ten years after the issuance of the report, showed an increase in the number of schools offering American history, English history, French history, and the intensive study of some period of history which the Committee recommended (Dexter, 1906).

The next major step in the evolution of the social studies curriculum came in 1896, when the AHA appointed its Committee of Seven to survey conditions existing in the schools and to recommend a course of study. The Committee of Seven found that the subjects taught in order of their frequency were as follows (AHA, 1890, p. 139):

1. English and American history, taught in more than half the schools.
2. "General" history, taught in exactly one-half the schools.
3. Greek and Roman history, taught in about one-half the schools.
4. European history, taught in about one-third of the schools.

The Committee of Seven recommended, in the same study (pp. 34-35),

the following program of study for the schools:

1. Ancient History, with special reference to Greek and Roman history, but also including a short introductory study of the more ancient nations. The course was to continue through the early Middle Ages and was to close with the establishment of the Holy Roman Empire (800 A. D.), or with the death of Charlemagne (814 A. D.), or with the treaty of Verdun (843 A. D.).
2. Medieval and Modern European History, from the close of the first period to the present time.
3. English History.
4. American History and Civil Government.

The members of the Committee felt that no one of these fields could be omitted without leaving a serious gap in the pupil's knowledge of history. According to the Committee, "Each department has its special value and teaches its special lesson; above all, the study of the whole field gives a meaning to each portion that it cannot have by itself." (See AHA, 1890, pp. 34-35.)

There is little question about the Committee of Seven's very significant influence on the school history program. In fact, it has been recognized as one of the two most influential reports on the social studies curriculum. In 1935, in the report of the study he undertook for the AHA, Rolla M. Tryon stated (p. 25) that "Evidence of the Committee's tremendous influence on history in the high schools may be found in syllabi and textbooks published to conform to its recommendations, and the number of high schools offering and requiring the courses it proposed."

As the social sciences clamored ever louder for a place in the public school curriculum, the nation's educational leaders became increasingly dissatisfied with the all-history program recommended by the AHA. In 1913, the directors of the NEA established a Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, which included a Committee on Social Studies. In its report issued in 1916, the NEA Commission recommended the following scope and sequence of social studies courses in grades nine through twelve:

1. Civics.
2. European history to approximately the end of the seventeenth century.
3. European history (including English history) since approximately the end of the seventeenth century.
4. American history since the seventeenth century.
5. Problems of American democracy.

It was clear from the report that leading educators were convinced that the social studies curriculum in secondary schools should consist of a balanced program of history and social sciences. The report stated flatly that four years of history were not needed in grades nine through twelve and proceeded to recommend that no more than three years be taught. Schools were encouraged to combine their ancient and medieval history courses and present them as one course offering at the tenth grade level.

By 1920, the program recommended by the NEA in 1916 had begun to challenge the AHA's program for dominance in the schools. Twenty years later, the NEA program had won the battle. During these twenty years, however, an important change had occurred in the program recommended by the NEA; the Commission's 1916 recommendation had created a problem for the schools by asking them to offer five social studies courses in the last four years of secondary school. The Commission suggested this problem might be resolved by condensing two of the three courses (modern European history, American history, and American problems) into one semester each. As state after state passed legislation requiring civics and American history to be two-semester courses and American problems to be at least a one-semester course, school administrators found a solution to their problem by consolidating the two-year sequence in European history into a one-year course called "world history." As a result, there were three popular ways of organizing the social studies program in the schools–the AHA (1890) program, the NEA's (1916) program, and the modified NEA program, with a one-year world history course replacing the two-year European history block.

The scheme in which world history was offered as a two-semester course gradually became the most popular of the three. A report on trends in the social studies curriculum undertaken in 1923 by the AHA revealed that "The one-year course in world history, while popular in some quarters, does not seem as yet to have made much headway." (See Dawson, 1924, p. 268.) In 1934, statistics published by the U.S. government showed that the two-year European history sequence recommended by the NEA in 1916 still enrolled more students than the one-year world history course (Cummings, 1949, p.9). By 1949, however, enrollments in world history had far outdistanced the number of students taking ancient, medieval, and modern European history courses combined. The world history course in

1949 enrolled 16.2 percent of all students in grades nine through twelve, while the combined percentage of the other three subjects was less than 4 percent (HEW, 1951, p. 8). Certainly, by then world history had emerged as an important course in the social studies curriculum, with an enrollment second in size to that of American history.

III: CRITICISMS OF THE WORLD HISTORY COURSE

The reason world history re-emerged as a part of the secondary school curriculum after 1920 was that pressure was placed on administrators to reduce the number of history offerings as community civics and other social studies subjects became more popular. The course was never recommended by a committee composed of historians, nor was it the pet project of a group of social studies educators. It was simply an administrator's solution to a vexing problem. No sooner had world history reappeared in schools than it became the target of the barbs hurled by the old critics of "general history" and their new allies. As early as 1927, J. Montgomery Gambrill wrote (p. 267):

> World history courses, usually one year in length, but sometimes a year and a half or two years, are frequently found about the tenth grade level. These courses are increasing in number and textbooks are multiplying impressively. A few interesting experiments are being worked out. Yet it cannot be said that the high schools have really caught the idea of the new world history. Both the courses and the textbooks remain in nearly all cases overwhelmingly European in content and point of view, while the reasons for introducing them are in many cases utterly reactionary. Any one who has the opportunity of visiting schools and making inquires will soon learn that very often the new course is introduced simply to cover as much ground as possible in the one year of history other than American which is offered, and the exigencies of a commercial or technical curriculum or the conflicting demands of other social studies are the real explanation, rather than any recognition of a World Community or of the need for a new world history. Such a practice is simply a reversion to the old "general history" so vigorously attacked a generation ago and for many years so completely discredited. Such a change is not progressive, but reactionary, however much it may superficially seem to conform to a current fashion. When the substance of two or three years' work under the Committee of Seven program is crammed into a highly condensed epitome for one year it is no wonder that children gag and the course is sometimes such a failure that it has to be dropped from the curriculum.

Rolla M. Tryon was no more complimentary of the world history course in the report he made in the 1935 AHA study (p. 221).

> The world-history course seems to have been one of the many aftermaths of the World War. It has never been recommended by a committee of national scope on which there were any historians. It seems to be the "Topsy" of the present day high-school history course. It has had its strongest supporters among school administrators, who, in their efforts to "hold fast to that which was good," when so many new subjects were clamoring for a hearing, found a way to keep history

other than American in the program of studies by encompassing in one year what had been included in two or even three years. Because of the fact that the historians did not at the beginning of the movement for world history react favorably toward it, the supply of textbooks was very limited, in fact most of those that did appear were nothing more than a rehashing of the old material that had formerly appeared in textbooks in European history. Furthermore, these texts had the musty odor of the traditional texts in general history.

In spite of the criticisms, the number of course offerings in world history continued to grow, and so did the percentage of students taking world history courses. Nevertheless, the popularity of the world history course with students and teachers, as well as with historians, declined. Dorothy McClure Fraser, in the Twentieth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies (1949, p. 25) stated:

> Random surveys of opinion among teachers and students alike indicate that perhaps no other part of the typical social studies program is more criticized than is the one year, elective world history course. Efforts to establish reasons for the dissatisfaction bring such comments as these from students, "It isn't interesting." "It's all names and dates." "What difference does it make to us anyway?" Teachers, on the other hand, are likely to complain, "There's not enough time to cover the ground." "There are too many facts to be taught." "There's not enough good supplementary material—the reading is all too hard." "Students don't like world history."

Dr. James Conant (1959) and Martin Mayer (1963), two observers of American high schools in the late 1950s and early 1960s, found that dissatisfaction with the course in world history was still widespread among students and teachers. According to Mayer (p. 22), "Except in their attitude toward the World History course (which everyone hates, because nobody feels secure with more than a fraction of a subject), most social studies teachers are complacently dissatisfied with what they are teaching."

In the survey it conducted of teachers in 1957, the Illinois Council for the Social Studies asked the question, "What do you see as the principal present problems in the teaching of World History?" The 221 teachers who responded gave forty-four different answers to this question, as follows (ICSS, 1957; see also Siemers, 1959, Appendix F):

1. Lack of knowledge of geography (need geography before history). (12)
2. Students need to be made to realize the importance of history in today's world. (35)
3. Poor reading ability and vocabulary. (35)

4. Should restrict slow readers from history. (1)
5. Each student needs an historical atlas and a textbook but school does not supply because of economy measures. (1)
6. Selection of major topics for emphasis. (10)
7. Reduction of superficial coverage in standard texts in order to get more depth. (12)
8. Covering great span of years in such short time (too much material). (69)
9. Divide course into three histories instead of just World History and give more time to each. (4)
10. Course is a dumping ground for poor students (group is composed of remedial students). (17)
11. A one-year course is impossible. (21)
12. Too few students enroll because it is elective. (1)
13. Trying to teach World History in one semester too difficult. (1)
14. Lack of good audiovisual aids. (3)
15. Developing interest in students (motivation). (25)
16. Lack of teacher interest. (1)
17. Breaking down of provincial outlooks. (1)
18. Too difficult for high school sophomores. (14)
19. Behavior problems. (1)
20. Need more time for current events. (1)
21. To get pupils to form opinions which are tolerant. (1)
22. To keep the students calm in the face of so much confusion. (2)
23. Textbooks too difficult. (3)
24. Need homogeneous grouping (too much for slow learner—too little for bright students). (6)
25. Need more emphasis on Africa and Asia. (2)
26. Textbooks inadequate on cultures of people. (3)
27. We need to relate history to present day problems—just teach "Current Problems" courses and throw out our present course arrangements and textbooks. (1)
28. Poor study habits (cannot concentrate). (3)
29. Teacher does not have enough time to read and keep up on events or grade papers. (5)
30. Classes too large. (1)
31. Developing time-place concepts. (2)
32. Getting supplementary materials. (3)
33. Keeping up with current history. (1)
34. Teaching load too heavy and classes too large. (2)
35. Getting students to accept responsibility for international understanding. (2)
36. Developing a sense of time. (1)
37. Lack of background. (3)
38. Should be a required twelfth grade course. (2)
39. Chronological textbooks. (1)
40. Textbooks inadequate in background materials. (3)
41. Should be elective (is required in our schools). (1)
42. Lack of classroom equipped with maps, books, and so forth. (1)
43. Difficulty in getting source materials. (2)
44. Difficulty in teaching about Russia and communism. (1)

In the Delaware survey conducted by Pulliam in December, 1968, teachers were asked to indicate their most important problems in teaching

world history. Those surveyed listed the voluminous material to be covered and the related time factor as their principal problems in teaching world history. Of lesser importance was the problem of allowing for individual and class differences, especially with respect to making the material interesting to students of all levels of ability. Other problems reported included:

1. Teacher unprepared to teach the course.
2. Classes too large.
3. Books in poor condition.
4. Administration problems.
5. Securing appropriate materials in classroom quantities.
6. Time necessary to produce self-made materials for the course.
7. Student apathy and laziness.

Such a list could continue infinitely. These factors are important, however, because they reflect the dissatisfaction of world history teachers with their own courses. Among the many criticisms that have been made of the world history course, the following are perhaps the most significant:

1. The problem of definition

An increasing number of people are uncertain about what the term world history means. Trained to think of history in terms of certain concepts and periodizations which have validity only for analyzing and talking about the history of the West, teachers, and historians as well, are not prepared to think in terms of an integrated history of mankind. When the term is used along with chronological history, global history, world cultures, and area studies, confusion reigns as to what each of the terms means.

2. External organization of the world history course

There has been considerable discussion in recent years about how much time is required in order to do an adequate job of teaching world history. Several authorities have maintained that one year is not sufficient to do the job satisfactorily, and they argue that three or four semesters would be a more realistic time allotment. A one-year course in world history must be highly selective, and only unsupported generalizations emerge in such a short period of time. As a result, students cannot obtain adequate insights or background for an understanding of the problems of today's world.

Discussion has also been concerned with the placement of world history in the social studies curriculum. Currently, world history is most often taught in the tenth grade. Some educators question whether or not high school sophomores are ready for the more difficult concepts of world history at that level. Besides being complex, such concepts as nationalism, imperialism, liberalism, and industrialism change meaning and vary subtly, sometimes starkly, according to who is using them and the context in which they are being used.

Other issues which have arisen are, "should the world history course be required or elective," and "should it be open to all students or available only to the academically talented?"

3. Objectives

Teachers and textbook writers seem to have nothing more in mind than to cover the material. They fail to define clear, achievable, instructional objectives. Since objectives are not clear, world history classes are little more than presentations of a succession of facts. The teacher does not tie fact to purpose. When objectives are stated, they are normally stated in such vague terms that no two people agree on what the objectives mean. "To create good citizens" is a good example. To complicate the matter, no one knows how to measure students achievement of the objectives. As a result, students never see the value or purpose of studying world history. Since they cannot see that the study of world history will benefit them, they are not motivated to study the subject.

4. Content and internal organization

Critics of the world history course have charged that the content invariably has a Western bias. Non-Western societies are either ignored or are discussed only with respect to their importance for European and American history. As the popular saying goes, "The history of Asia and Africa is always viewed from the deck of an European or American gunboat." As a result, the course in world history presents a distorted view, in that it continues to exalt Western Europe at the expense of other portions of the globe and other cultures of the world.

In addition, the content of the world history course has been criticized for emphasizing political history at the expense of cultural, social, and economic history.

Most world history courses are organized on a chronological basis. Many authorities believe the courses would be more interesting for students if they were organized by areas or topics. As a result of the social studies revolution of the 1960s, there has been support for three new types of organizational patterns—generalizations, concepts, and analytical questions.

5. Methodology

Students nationwide find the world history course dull. One possible reason for this is that the course, as it is now taught, requires a lot of memorizing, and teachers frequently repeat facts over and over again to make sure that students memorize them. In spite of the immense amount and variety of audiovisual materials now available, the world history course is usually nothing more than reading the textbook and reciting answers to end-of-chapter questions. Students find no intellectual challenge in the course and are rightfully resentful of the way it is taught. Teachers are not aware of the wide range of teaching strategies open to them, nor do they see any relationship between objectives and teaching strategies.

6. Materials

The primary material used in the world history course classroom is the 800-page textbook. The textbook has been criticized for being fact-oriented, superficial, difficult to read, and dull. Very little attention has been given to preparing world history materials for slow and culturally deprived children. An additional criticism is that most textbooks are characterized by the same European myopia common to that course itself.

7. Teacher preparation

One of the most serious criticisms leveled at the world history course is the inadequate preparation of teachers. Most teachers have little, if any, preparation in the history of non-Western civilizations. They also have scant preparation in anthropology, geography, and other social science courses which would be of benefit to them in teaching world history. Most frequently, the world history teacher has completed some graduate work, but this work normally is in education and does not adequately prepare him to handle the vast demands of the historical discipline. In spite of the graduate work he has completed in education, the world history teacher often does not know what he should about the psychology of learning, evaluation of pupil performance, and methods of teaching history.

IV: EXTERNAL ORGANIZATION OF THE WORLD HISTORY COURSE

This section of the report is concerned with the frequency with which the world history course is offered in the curriculum, the trend of enrollment in the world history course, the frequency with which the course is required for graduation, how often it is offered as an elective, the grade placement of the course, the general level of ability of students taking the course, and the grouping of students taking the course.

Number and Percent of Public High Schools Offering World History

In 1960-61, according to statistics published by the U.S. Office of Education (HEW, 1965a), of the 22,769 public secondary day schools in the United States, 15,653 (or 68 percent) offered world history. When schools with just the seventh and eighth grades are excluded, the figures are even more impressive. Of the 7,001 four-year high schools surveyed by the Office of Education, 86.7 percent offered world history, and of the 1,734 senior high schools (grades 10-12), 87.2 percent offered world history. In the United States, world history stands second to American history as the most frequently offered social studies course in public secondary schools. Table 1 shows the percentage of public day schools offering the most popular social studies subjects.

In conducting a survey of courses and practices in the field of secondary school social studies in 1963 for the Educational Testing Service, Scarvia B. Anderson and others found that 85 percent of the public schools in their sample offered a course in world history, 89 percent of the Catholic schools offered such a course, and 51 percent of the independent schools taught world history. This study showed that the percentage of public, Catholic, and independent schools offering world history courses increased from 1958 to 1963, as Table 2 illustrates.

U.S. Office of Education figures with respect to the number of non-public schools offering world history courses show that, out of 3,782 schools, 2,875 or (76 percent) offer such a course. In non-public secondary schools, world history runs a very close second to American history as the most frequently offered social studies course; 80.2 percent of 3,034 schools offered American history, while 76.0 percent of 2,875 schools offered world history (HEW, 1965b, p. 19).

TABLE 1. PERCENT OF PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS OFFERING VARIOUS COURSES, BY TYPE OF SCHOOL, 1960-61*
(HEW, 1965a, p. 19)

COURSE AND LEVEL	JR. HIGH SCHOOLS 4,458	4-YR. HIGH SCHOOLS 7,001	JR.-SR. HIGH SCHOOLS 9,640	SR. HIGH SCHOOLS 1,734
Social Studies, Grade 7	14.1	--	12.1	--
Social Studies, Grade 8	11.5	--	11.8	--
History, Grades 7-8	--	--	--	--
United States	83.8	--	74.2	--
State	33.2	--	41.7	--
World	19.2	--	15.3	--
Civics, Grades 7-8	3.6	--	4.2	--
Geography, Grades 7-8	54.4	--	42.9	--
Social Studies, Grade 9	2.0	1.5	(+)**	--
Occupations	3.1	3.5	3.5	2.7
Orientation	--	4.7	1.6	(+)
Civics, Grades 9-10	36.3	29.1	34.6	3.9
History, Grades 9-12	--	--	--	--
United States	7.4	93.3	86.2	96.3
State	13.1	14.9	28.0	14.0
World	13.9	86.7	77.3	87.2
Ancient and Medieval	4.9	3.1	3.6	6.3
Modern	(+)	4.2	2.9	13.4
Miscellaneous	(+)	(+)	(+)	3.1
World Geography, Grades 9-12	13.9	40.3	30.4	31.1
Geography, Miscellaneous, Grades 9-12	(+)	(+)	(+)	2.1
Civics or Government, Grades 11-12	--	56.8	50.9	53.3
Problems of Democracy	--	22.5	23.2	40.5
Economics	--	26.2	20.5	37.8
Psychology	--	13.5	9.7	26.8
Sociology or Social Problems	--	30.0	17.4	36.0
Consumer Education	--	3.6	3.4	5.8
International Relations	--	1.8	(+)	7.4
Honors or Advanced Placement	--	(+)	(+)	1.7
Miscellaneous, Grades 7-12	(+)	(+)	(+)	1.8

*Not shown in the table is the fact that 19.2 percent of the schools in the United States with seventh and eight grades offer only world history, according to U. S. Office of Education figures.

**(+) = less than 1.5%

TABLE 2. SUBJECT MATTER TAUGHT IN 1958 AND 1963
(Anderson and others, 1964, p. 12)

SUBJECT	PERCENTAGE OF SCHOOLS TEACHING AS A SEPARATE SUBJECT					
	Public, Grades 7-12 (N = 388)		Catholic, Grades 9-12 (N = 248)		Independent, Grades 7-12 (N = 233)	
	1958	1963	1958	1963	1958	1963
Ancient or Medieval History	16	19	17	17	54	60
English History	1	1	--	1	17	14
Far Eastern or Oriental History	1	2	--	0.4	2	11
Latin American History	4	5	2	2	4	4
Modern European History	9	21	10	12	52	57
Modern or Contemporary History	11	16	11	15	26	33
World Cultures	4	6	2	9	5	6
World History	78	85	77	89	46	51

The ETS investigators separated the schools in their sample into four regions, East, Midwest, South, and West. As Table 3 illustrates, they found that 86 percent of the schools in the East, 89 percent of the schools in the Midwest, 87 percent of the Southern schools, and 82 percent of the schools in the West offered world history as a separate course.

Other studies show similar results. In the 1962 study of 368 schools accredited by the North Central Association of Schools and Colleges, Bertram A. Masia (1963, p. 210) found that 97 percent of the schools in his sample offered world history.

Richard Gross found, in a study conducted in California in 1951, that world history was the most frequently dropped high school social studies offering in the state. Figures published by the U.S. Office of Education for the 1960-61 school year (HEW, 1965a, p. 42) show that 66.6 percent of the

TABLE 3. SUBJECT MATTER TAUGHT IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN TERMS OF REGION (Anderson and others, 1964, p. 15)

SUBJECT	REGION							
	I. East (N=70)		II. Midwest (N=127)		III. South (N=153)		IV. West (N=38)	
	+	++	+	++	+	++	+	++
Ancient or Medieval History	29	76	16	63	17	44	16	74
English History	1	59	2	42	1	27	--	60
Far-Eastern or Oriental History	3	64	.08	47	--	25	10	68
Latin American History	1	61	4	46	6	32	8	55
Modern European History	24	79	14	59	6	33	5	63
Modern or Contemporary History	24	76	16	69	11	48	13	82
World Cultures	23	77	3	54	1	33	10	82
World History	86	96	89	[illegible]	87	92	82	97

*+ = Percentage teaching as separate course

**++ = Total percentage teaching

public secondary day schools in California offer world history, which places the state below the national average. Nevertheless, the dropping of the world history course does not seem to be a nationwide trend. The ETS figures already cited (see Table 2) indicate that between 1958 and 1963 there was a percentage increase in the number of schools offering world history in all regions of the United States. A 1962 study of Arizona schools made by Nelson L. Haggerson and Del Weber (1963) showed that seven schools had added world history to their social studies programs, and one school had dropped the subject during the five-year period from 1958 to 1962. Two additional schools indicated they had added a course in current world history, and two others had added a course in contemporary world problems. Tables 4 and 5 show courses relating to world history that were added to and/or dropped from the curriculum of Arizona schools between 1958 and 1962.

TABLE 4. COURSES ADDED TO THE CURRICULUM
(SUBJECTS ADDED TO THE SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM FROM 1958 TO 1962)
(Haggerson and Weber, 1963, p. 17)

SUBJECT	NUMBER OF SCHOOLS	%	SUBJECT	NUMBER OF SCHOOLS	%
World Geography	17	34	Asian History	1	2
Economics	8	16	Current Events	1	2
World History	7	14	Social Studies	1	2
Geography (Western Hemisphere)	4	8	Social Science	1	2
Geography	4	8	Political Theory	1	2
Civics	3	6	Consumer Economics	1	2
Sociology	2	4	U.S. History (Advanced Placement)	1	2
Humanities	2	4	Group Guidance	1	2
Current World History	2	4	Citizenship	1	2
International Relations	2	4	Japanese Language and History	1	2
Problems of Democracy	2	4	Latin American History	1	2
Contemporary World Problems	2	4	Southwest History	1	2
Social Problems	2	4	Civil War	1	2
Current Problems	1	2	Contemporary Civilization	1	2
Psychology	1	2	Practical Social Studies	1	2
Comparative Government	1	2	Freshman Orientation	1	2
Economic Geography	1	2	World Civics	1	2
Arizona History	1	2			
Ancient History	1	2			
Modern History	1	2			
Place Geography	1	2			

TABLE 5. SUBJECTS DROPPED FROM THE CURRICULUM
(SUBJECTS DROPPED FROM SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM FROM 1958 TO 1962)
(Haggerson and Weber, 1963, p. 17)

SUBJECT	NUMBER OF SCHOOLS	SUBJECT	NUMBER OF SCHOOLS
World Geography	6	Sociology	1
Social Studies	4	Problems of Democracy	1
Citizenship	3	Economic Geography	1
U.S. History	2	American Problems	1
Geography	2	International Relations	1
Social Living	1	Latin American Civics	1
Comparative Governments	1	Consumer Education	1
Occupations	1	Arizona Geography	1
Group Guidance	1	World History	1

Enrollment in the World History Course

Figures compiled by the U.S. Office of Education since 1922 indicate that enrollments between 1922 and 1961 in world history courses increased with respect to absolute enrollment and to the percentage of students in grades nine through twelve taking the course. Table 6 shows the numerical and percentage increases in world history course enrollment since 1928.

TABLE 6. INCREASES IN WORLD HISTORY COURSE ENROLLMENT SINCE 1928 (HEW, 1965a, p. 100)

SUBJECT	1948-1949 NUMBER OF PUPILS	1948-1949 PERCENT OF TOTAL GRADE ENROLLMENT*	1960-1961 NUMBER OF PUPILS	1960-1961 PERCENT OF TOTAL GRADE ENROLLMENT**
World History (usually offered in 10th grade)	876,432	58.9	1,471,531	69.4

*Total enrollment in Grade 10 = 1,490,628
**Total enrollment in Grade 10 = 2,119,393

It should be noted that in 1948-49, 876,432 students in public secondary day schools were enrolled in world history courses. By 1960-61, this figure had increased to 1,471,531. In 1948-49, 16.2 percent of all students in grades nine through twelve were enrolled in world history. In 1960-61, 18 percent of the students in grades nine through twelve were taking a world history course.

Length of the World History Course

The vast majority of schools which offer world history offer it for two semesters. The study conducted by the Illinois Council for the Social Studies in 1957 revealed that 206 of the 221 schools in the survey (93 percent) offered world history for two semesters. This seems to be the pattern throughout the nation. In his survey of Delaware schools in 1968, Pulliam found that 89 percent offered a two-semester course in world history, world cultures, or European history. As Table 7 shows, the ETS investigators (Anderson and others, 1964) found that 96 percent of the public and Catholic schools and 94 percent of the independent schools in their survey offered a two-semester world history course.

TABLE 7. LENGTH OF WORLD HISTORY COURSES AND PERCENTAGES OF PUBLIC SECONDARY AND INDEPENDENT SCHOOLS OFFERING THEM (Anderson and others, 1964, pp. 16-18)

SCHOOLS SURVEYED	PUBLIC (N=289)	CATHOLIC (N=213)	INDEPENDENT (N=107)
One-semester course	2%	1%	0.9%
Two-semester course	96%	96%	94%
Three-semester course	0.7%	0.9%	3%
Four-semester course	1%	1%	3%

Figures published by the U.S. Office of Education show that in 1960-61, 1,430,339 students in public secondary day schools in the United States were enrolled in a two-semester world history course, while 41,192 were enrolled in a one-semester course. This means that approximately 97 percent of all students taking world history are enrolled in two-semester courses. A small percentage of students, while enrolled in a two-semester world history course, take driver's training for six weeks of the period.

In recent years, some authorities have advocated that world history be offered for three or four semesters. In the North Central Association, Masia found no evidence of a trend toward extending the course beyond two semesters (1963, p. 209). Of the 221 schools in the Illinois study, only five reported offering more than two semesters of world history (see Siemers, 1959, p. 30). The ETS survey confirmed this finding, as Table 7 shows.

At least one of the social studies projects funded by the U.S. Office of Education in the early 1960s, the Illinois project directed by Dr. Ella Leppert (ICSS, 1957), has produced materials for a two-year world history course. It is doubtful that many schools will adopt a two-year world history program. All of the evidence indicates that world history will remain a two-semester course for some time to come.

World History as a Required Social Studies Subject

Five states in the United States (Alaska, Hawaii, North Dakota, Texas, and Utah) require World History for graduation from high school. The requirement in North Dakota is a state law, while in Alaska, Texas, and Utah,

the requirement is by act of the State Board of Education. In addition to these five states, Virginia's State Board of Education requires either World History or World Geography in grade nine or ten. Pennsylvania requires a one-semester course in World Cultures, and New York, by decree of the State Superintendent of Education, requires Asian and African Culture Studies at the ninth grade and The Western Heritage at the tenth grade. A few other states (South Carolina and Wyoming, for example) require students to accumulate a certain number of credits in the social studies for graduation. These credits can be selected from a number of offerings, one of which is World History.

At the local level, many school systems require students to take one or two semesters of world history. Willis D. Moreland found, in his 1961 survey of secondary schools (1962, p. 75), that 134 of the 214 senior high schools (grades 10-12) required a social studies course at the tenth grade, 209 required one at the eleventh grade, and 166 required one at the twelfth grade. Ninety-eight schools made a world history course the requirement at the tenth grade, and 13 schools required it at the eleventh grade. None of the schools required a world history course at the twelfth grade. Thus, 51 percent of the senior high schools in the sample required world history for graduation.

Table 8 shows that the ETS investigators found that 51 percent of the public schools, 76 percent of the Catholic schools, and 67 percent of the independent schools studied required world history for graduation.

TABLE 8. WORLD HISTORY AS A GRADUATION REQUIREMENT IN PUBLIC, CATHOLIC, AND INDEPENDENT SCHOOLS
(Anderson and others, 1964, pp. 16-18)

SCHOOLS SURVEYED	PUBLIC (N=289)	CATHOLIC (N=213)	INDEPENDENT (N=107)
World History required of:			
All students	51%	76%	67%
College preparatory students	10%	8%	9%
Others	14%	9%	8%
None	22%	4%	12%

In Arizona, world history ranks second to world geography as the most frequently required course at the ninth grade level and heads the list at the tenth grade, with 30 percent of the schools requiring world history at that level.

In the study he made in 1962 of school systems in cities of more than 100,000 population, Emlyn Jones found that there was a definite trend toward making world history a required course in schools in cities of this size. The results of Jones' study are presented in Table 10. Jones reports that the proportion of large city school systems requiring world history courses rose from 26 percent to 60 percent in the decade between 1953 and 1962 (Jones, 1963).

TABLE 9. REQUIRED SOCIAL STUDIES COURSES IN ARIZONA
(Haggerson and Weber, 1963, p. 13)

SUBJECT	NUMBER OF SCHOOLS	%	SUBJECT	NUMBER OF SCHOOLS	%
World Geography	10	20	Social Science	1	2
World History	3	6	World History	15	30
General History	1	2	World Geography	4	8
Social Science-World Geography	1	2	World History and Driver Training	2	4
World History-Civics	1	2	American History	1	2
Civics and Vocation	1	2	Driver Training and Social Living	1	2
Freshman Orientation	1	2	Modern History	1	2
Social Studies	1	2			

TABLE 10. SOCIAL STUDIES COURSES REQUIRED IN CITY SCHOOL SYSTEMS, 100,000 OR MORE POPULATION
(Jones, 1963, p. 18)

COURSE	NUMBER OF SCHOOL SYSTEMS REQUIRING 1953	1962	GRADE MOST FREQUENTLY INDICATED
United States History	105	130	11
World History	28	64	10
Civics or Government	47	64	12
Problems	36	34	12
Economics	6	19	12
Geography	8	18	9
Local or State History	3	12	9
Driver Education	5	11	10
Introduction to Social Studies	0	3	9 or 12
Consumer Economics	3	2	12
Family Living	0	2	10
Latin America	2	1	10
Far East	2	1	10
Human Relations	1	1	10
International Relations	0	1	12

V: OBJECTIVES

Historians and educators have felt for some time that something has been wrong with the way history, especially world history, has been taught in our schools. A point of despair was reached recently. In an article published in the Phi Delta Kappan, one of America's distinguished elder statesmen among educators, Edgar Bruce Wesley, advocated the abolishment of history courses in secondary schools (Wesley, 1967, pp. 3-8). Although historians would not go so far as to support the abolishment of all history courses in the schools, a vast majority of them would like to see world history, which they consider an impossible course to teach, replaced by one or two courses more limited in scope.

A minority of historians and educators are not ready to abandon the world history course, however. This small group sees considerable merit in the idea of offering courses in world history. Nevertheless, most of the members of this group would like to see a number of reforms made in the way the subject is presently organized and taught. One of the reforms advocated by educators concerns objectives--and they are winning a few historians and other subject matter specialists to their point of view. Educators believe that objectives for the world history course must be stated in more meaningful and precise terms than has been the case in the past. Mindella Schultz (1968, p. 796), a freelance consultant on educational materials, has said:

> . . . why has history failed to make use of its potential in the past? One reason has already been mentioned. You cannot achieve educational objectives until you have defined them. Historians, textbook writers, and teachers of history have yet to agree upon over-all, achievable objectives.

During the past year, Lee Anderson, Assistant Professor of Political Science and Education at Northwestern University, has been working on a project for the Foreign Policy Association, in which he has been trying to determine what the primary objectives of the K-12 curriculum should be in respect to international education. Anderson has found that schools are not at all clear about what contributions they can and should make to the international education of young people. According to Lee F. Anderson (1968, p. 1):

> While countless curriculum guides and a rather massive volume of commentary on school curriculum refer to education for international understanding and note the importance of such education given the likely shape of the world that today's students will inherit from elders, rarely do we specify with any conceptual precision what it is that we have in mind by 'international understanding.' Indeed a review of the literature on education for international understanding reveals a good deal of ambiguity, uncertainty, and conflict about the nature of such education.

The idea of developing objectives for the world history course is not new. For years, teachers, curriculum supervisors, and methods instructors serve little or no purpose in the teaching of the course itself. As soon as the objectives were on paper, everyone forgot all about them. They served no purpose in selecting material, since the same old textbooks were used; they had no effect on learning experiences, since students continued to read and recite in class; and no one attempted to measure student performance to see if the objectives of the course had been achieved.

One reason objectives failed to serve the intended function is that they were stated in such vague terms that no two people agreed about their meaning. For example, in 1966, curriculum supervisors and teachers in Whitesboro, New York, prepared a study guide for a course in "Non-western Cultures." As a result of their study, students were to learn in the course, among other things, "to appreciate the basic similarities of people everywhere." (See Whitesboro Central Schools, 1966, p. 1.) What the authors meant by "to appreciate," they did not say--and chances are, they did not know. Who knows what it means "to appreciate the basic similarities of people everywhere"? What changes take place in a student's behavior to indicate that he has achieved this objective?

Behavioralists object to the use of vague infinitives such as "to appreciate" in the statement of objectives. They argue that infinitives such as "to know," "to understand," "to become acquainted with," "to grasp the significance of," "to gain a greater interest in," "to gain greater ability to handle," "to realize," "to study," and "to learn to relate" give no indication of the terminal behavior expected of students. As a result, teachers are at a loss to know what content, learning experiences, and evaluation measures to use.

A sample of objectives listed in various world history curriculum guides indicates how frequently imprecise infinitives have been used in the past. Other objectives in the "Non-western Cultures" curriculum guide are as follows (p. 1):

1. To study the earth, the solar system and space.
2. To realize the tremendous effect of the earth upon man.
3. To understand the importance of climate.
4. To understand the importance of resources, their use and abuse, and to develop attitudes of respect for these resources and their wise use.
5. To understand the many institutions that man develop [sic] and the reasons for different ways of life in different parts of the world.
6. To gain a greater interest in some part of the world or some theme connected with world geography and cultures.
7. To gain greater ability to handle maps of many kinds as tools to understand peoples and countries.
8. To learn to relate geography to current events.

This list of objectives is not at all atypical. Imprecise objectives are a characteristic of virtually all world history curriculum guides. The following objectives are taken from a guide published for use in New York City public schools in 1959 (pp. 2-3).

1. To develop an understanding of the background and origins of present institutions and customs.
2. To develop an appreciation for the values of democracy.
3. To develop a sense of ethical values which are part of the heritage of civilized man.
4. To awaken a realization of the ever present danger of totalitarianism to man's liberty.
5. To instill an appreciation of the value of solving international disputes by peaceful means.
6. To foster an understanding of the interdependence of men and of world resources and to further a knowledge of other people's cultures and problems and an appreciation of human values.
7. To develop an understanding of the importance of technology in raising living standards.
8. To show the influence of Western civilization on underdeveloped parts of the world.
9. To develop critical thinking, suspended judgment, objectivity, and research techniques.
10. To show the importance of the historical method and historical evidence in problem solving.
11. To foster ability to read and interpret the printed page and other mass media of communication.
12. To promote skill in reading and interpreting charts, graphs, maps, and statistics.

Broad, general objectives might be tolerated as statements of course goals if teachers developed specific sub-objectives, the mastery of which

would lead to the achievement of the course goals. Specific, behavioral sub-objectives could serve to guide teachers in the selection of content, teaching strategies, learning experiences, and evaluation measures. Teachers do not do this, however. Their objectives are as vague and imprecise as those listed in the curriculum guides. In his survey of Delaware world history teachers in 1968, Pulliam found the following seven objectives to be listed most frequently by teachers:

1. To relate past events to current problems.
2. To present the contributions of all civilizations in the shaping of our world.
3. To show the inter-workings of other disciplines in historical development.
4. To present the general history of Europe from 1500 A. D. to the present.
5. To present the cultural development of man.
6. To teach abstract concepts rather than rote learning.
7. To further the understanding of the evolution of mankind.

Although these objectives are better than no objectives at all, critics would still find them too vague. They do not indicate the expected behavioral change of students.

Another frequently heard criticism of the way objectives were stated in the past is that they most often indicated what the teacher was to do instead of pointing out what students should be able to do as a result of completing the course of study. For example, the objectives listed in the 1959 edition of the New York City curriculum guide for world history were all written with teachers in mind (pp. 2-3). The teacher was "to develop critical thinking" in the students, "to show the importance of the historical method," and "to foster an understanding of the interdependence of men." No mention is made of what behavioral change was expected of students.

The trend in the writing of objectives is toward stating what kinds of behavioral changes are expected of students after completing the course of instruction, such as:

1. To compare and contrast communism and capitalism with respect to productivity, growth rate, level of employment, and standards of living.
2. To identify a historical problem from data.
3. To construct a line graph showing the increase in population in the last 2,000 years.
4. To distinguish statements of fact from statements of opinion.

Educators have for many years distinguished among three kinds of objectives–knowledge, skill, and value. They have recognized that these three are not truly separable for, as Edwin Fenton, Professor of History at Carnegie-Mellon University, has expressed it, "Without proper attitudes, a child cannot use inquiry skills. Without knowledge there is nothing to inquire about." (See Fenton, 1967, p. 11.) Still educators have found the three-fold classification of objectives to be useful in their work because it calls attention to the kinds of objectives that are being established for a course. Most of the directors of the new social studies projects have continued to separate objectives into these three divisions, although no two of them label their categories the same. In the past, knowledge objectives have received by far the most attention from curriculum supervisors and teachers. The development of skill objectives was occasionally emphasized, while value objectives were almost totally ignored.

Directors of the new social studies projects have somewhat changed this order of emphasis. Realizing that there are simply too many facts to teach in any social studies course, project directors have been influenced by Jerome Brunner's idea that the focus of the social studies course should be on teaching the structures of the social science disciplines. Structure has commonly been interpreted as the method of inquiry used by social scientists. Each discipline has its own method of inquiry. As a result, in the new projects, heavy stress is placed on the development of inquiry skills. More attention is also being given to the analysis and teaching of values.

The new tenth-grade course in world history developed by Edwin Fenton and his associates at Carnegie-Mellon University attempts to teach students the mode of inquiry used by historians. The first several lessons in The Shaping of Western Society (Good, 1968a, pp. 17-23) are designed to introduce students to the study of history. Lesson 1 is titled "How the Historian Classifies Information;" Lesson 2 is "How the Historian Inquires into the Past;" Lesson 3 is "How the Historian Uses Hypotheses;" Lesson 4 is "How the Historian Decides What is Fact;" and Lesson 5 is "What is History?". Throughout the course, students are provided with opportunities to work as historians.

Fenton has established objectives for each of the three major sections into which his "Shaping of Western Society" course is divided. The objectives

can be listed in three categories–knowledge, method of inquiry, and attitude and value. He has made an attempt to state some of his objectives in behavioral terms. This is especially true in the Method of Inquiry section. Examples from each section of the course are as follows (Good, 1968b, pp. 28-29):

1. Knowledge Objective
   To know how medieval European political, economic, and social social systems were organized, how they functioned, and how they differed from modern, more complex systems.
2. Method of Inquiry Objective
   Given analytical questions drawn from social science concepts and data about the Middle Ages, to be able to state hypotheses about the nature of medieval political, economic, and social systems.
3. Attitude and Value Objective
   To be willing to accept a generalization only after evidence supports it.

Fenton has also developed objectives for each daily lesson. If the student masters each of the daily objectives, he will have achieved the section objectives, since a direct relationship exists between the two sets. If Fenton's system breaks down anywhere, it is with respect to value objectives. He does not emphasize value objectives on a daily basis, although he includes them in his list of major section objectives. Following are some examples of Fenton's daily objectives (from Good, 1968b, p. 42).

1. Knowledge Objectives
   A. To know several analytical questions derived from the concepts of role, status, norms, and social class.
   B. To know that analytical questions derived from these concepts can be used to analyze a social structure.
   C. To know the role, status, norms, and social class of clergymen, nobles, peasants, and townsmen.
2. Method of Inquiry Objectives
   A. Given the concepts of role, status, norms, and social class, to be able to ask analytical questions that can be used to develop hypotheses from the evidence in this reading.
   B. Given analytical questions derived from sociological concepts and evidence in this reading, to be able to develop hypotheses about the role, status norms, and social class of medieval clergymen, nobles, peasants, and townsmen.

Fenton maintains that there are three kinds of value objectives–behavioral, procedural, and substantive (1967, p. 17). An example of a behavioral objective would be for the student "to raise his hand before speaking in class." An example of a procedural objective, according to

Fenton, would be for the student "to defend his opinions with factual evidence rather than with appeals to authority, superstition, or some other similar source." An example of a substantive value is for the student "to realize that the family is the basis of society, so divorce ought not to be permitted." Fenton believes teachers should teach behavioral and procedural values but not substantive values. Many educators do not agree with Fenton on this point, however. They feel that substantive, as well as behavioral and procedural, values should be taught in the classroom.

An interesting attempt to make objectives more specific, and thereby more meaningful, has been worked out by Lee Anderson in the tentative report he recently submitted to the Foreign Policy Association. Anderson has developed a typology which sets forth what he perceives to be the major kinds of contributions that the K-12 curriculum should seek to make to the international understanding of contemporary students (Anderson, 1968, pp. 51-52).

One contribution Anderson believes the K-12 curriculum should make to the international understanding of students is, "to develop the capacity of students to make logically valid and empirically grounded analytical judgments." Such an objective, Anderson maintains, implies that:

A. The curriculum should develop within students a "realistic" attitude toward knowledge. This implies:
   1. Developing within students an understanding of knowledge as a set of man-created hypotheses or images.
   2. Developing within students the capacity to conceptualize phenomena in alternative ways.
   3. Developing within students awareness of the influence of cultural setting and social situation on human knowledge, and particularly their own perception and interpretation of the world.

B. The curriculum should develop within students an understanding of and some skill in the process of social scientific inquiry. This implies:
   1. Developing within students some understanding of the process of inquiry. This implies developing students' understanding of:
      a. The nature of analytical problems or questions in the social science.
      b. The nature of and types of propositions and hypotheses found in the social sciences.
      c. The nature of concepts and variables.
      d. The logic of measurement and the methodologies of data or information acquisition in the social sciences.
      e. The logic and methodology of sampling.
      f. The logic of evidence in social inquiry.
      g. The nature and uses of theory in social inquiry.

2. Developing students' inquiry skills. Included are:
   a. An ability to distinguish statements expressing descriptive beliefs, explanatory beliefs, predictive beliefs, and normative beliefs.
   b. An ability to identify and formulate in question form analytical problems inherent in a set of data or in an argument about a given phenomena and to appraise critically these formulations.
   c. An ability to identify alternative beliefs about a given phenomenon and to state these beliefs in the form of explicit propositions or hypotheses.
   d. An ability to recognize and to explicate the logical implication of hypotheses.
   e. An ability to identify the concepts that must be defined and the variables that must be "measured" in order to test empirically propositions or hypotheses.
   f. An ability to define conceptually these concepts and to think of or "invent" ways in which variables might be measured.
   g. An ability to examine critically conceptual definitions and operational measures.
   h. An ability to identify the kind and form of information or data that a test of propositions call for; that is, the kind and form of data implied by proposed operational measures of variables.
   i. An ability to identify and to evaluate possible sources of data.
   j. An ability to collect, organize and evaluate data in terms of their apparent validity and reliability.
   k. An ability to evaluate hypotheses or propositions in light of data and then accordingly to reject them, accept them, or modify them.
   l. An ability to relate two or more propositions to form a "theory."
   m. An ability to recognize or identify the logical implications of a theory.
   n. An ability to judge or evaluate the merits of alternative theories.

Anderson's list contains a mixture of behavioral and non-behavioral objectives. He attempts to make each general objective specific by specifying what the mastery of it implies. This is a considerable improvement over the vague objectives of the past.

The trend in curriculum development is toward developing a specific set of behavioral objectives to guide in the selection of content, learning experiences, teaching strategies, and evaluating measures. Nevertheless, not all of the directors of the new social studies projects began their work with a well thought-out list of objectives. In failing to develop such a list, they have left themselves open to the criticism of educators. In his 1967 article in Social Education (p. 574), Albert S. Anthony, Professor of Education at the University of Massachusetts, attacked Fenton and Richard H. Brown, Director of the Amherst History Project, for failing to

incorporate into their work a written rationale setting forth objectives and discovering procedures for their attainment. Anthony wondered why, in view of the significant role objectives play in curriculum innovation, the directors of the projects had tended to overlook them. Instead of responding that objectives are unimportant, both Fenton and Brown defended themselves by claiming that they had developed a set of rather specific objectives for their projects.

Evidence seems to support the conclusion that, in the future, directors of curriculum projects will have to pay more attention to the development of objectives. These objectives will have to be written for students and will have to indicate the terminal behavior that is expected. Evaluators will judge the success of the project on how important the objectives are and how well the material, learning experiences, and teaching strategies help students achieve the objectives.

VI: INTERNAL ORGANIZATION OF THE WORLD HISTORY COURSE

The knowledge explosion which has occurred in the twentieth century has made the task of the world history teacher most difficult. Each year historians discover a multitude of new facts about the past which world history teachers could, if they so desired, fit into a course already inundated with facts. World history teachers have to face the task of selecting the material they want their students to learn and of organizing this material into meaningful patterns. Until recently, world history teachers have generally organized their courses in one of three ways – chronologically, topically, or geographically.

Chronology means the arrangement of events in the order of their occurrence. It is the oldest and most widely used principle governing the organization of the world history course. In an article appearing in the Twentieth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies, Morris R. Buske and A. Wesley Roehm analyzed the chronological method of organization in world history. Buske and Roehm pointed out that today no world history teacher organizes his course strictly according to the principle of chronology. Instead, they found the typical scheme of organization to be a modified chronological pattern. According to the authors (1949, p. 52):

> Today, when we speak of the chronological organization of history, we do not mean the old-style arrangement of an uninterrupted sequence of events. We mean rather, a modified, flexible approach, which allows for the grouping of germane materials under fairly broad units that may overlap in time.

Such an organizational scheme, Buske and Roehm said, was sometimes referred to as the topical-chronological patterns. Buske and Roehm identified four types of topical-chronological patterns. The following scheme is an example of what they considered to be the most popular of the four patterns.

1. Introduction (including definition, values, sources, and divisions of history).
2. Prehistoric man.
3. Civilizations of the ancient Near East.
4. Graeco-Roman culture.
5. The Middle Ages.
6. Renaissance and Reformation.

7. Rise of national states (including the expansion of Europe).
8. Age of autocracy (including the Old Regime and 18th-century culture).
9. The era of political and social revolution (including the American, French, and Latin-American revolutions).
10. The Industrial Revolution.
11. The growth of democracy and nationalism.
12. Imperialism.
13. World War I.
14. The world between wars.
15. World War II.
16. International organizations and problems.

A frequent variation of this scheme inserts units on specific nations (for example, England, France, Germany, and Russia) after the unit on the world since World War I.

A few attempts have been made to teach world history backward by starting at the present and working back in time. Almost without exception, those who have tried to organize a world history course on the reverse chronological principle have abandoned the scheme after one or two trials.

Suggestions have been made in recent years for what is commonly called the "postholed" course in world history. According to Edith West (1964, p. 604), a "postholed" course is one in which students study selected periods or topics in considerable depth. The postholes are connected by lines strung by rapid reading of intervening chapters in textbooks or by brief lectures by the teacher. Joseph Strayer, Professor of History at Princeton University, has given professional support to the "posthole" approach to teaching world history. In speaking of the content in world history courses, which must cover many centuries and civilizations in a limited period of time, Strayer pointed out, in an article published in The Social Studies and the Social Sciences (1962), that much more must be omitted from these courses than can be taught. Strayer believed two basic rules should be followed in selecting topics for the world history course (p. 35):

> In the first place, there should be diversity in both time and space. the student should learn something about at least one early civilization and about at least one non-European civilization. In the second place, there should be a fairly detailed study of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries in order to give the student the background that he needs for understanding the modern world.

Strayer suggested that emphasis should also be placed upon differences between pre-industrial and industrial societies, the influence of new scientific, technological, economic, and political ideas, "the significance of tradition in shaping responses to new situations," and the increasing interdependence of nations.

Strayer felt that the method of studying a few periods in depth provided greater opportunity for suggesting the comparisons and contrasts that are so useful in stimulating interest in and understanding of history. The periods he suggested for in-depth study, especially for those teachers who desired continuity in their course, were (pp. 36-39) as follows:

1. Early Modern Period (beginning about 1450 A. D.). Brief survey of Middle Ages: economy, Church, intellectual and artistic ideas, chief European governments. Rise of states. Development of Europe as center for trade and manufacturing, including technological developments. Other cultures at time of contact with Europeans.
2. Intellectual revolutions of the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries. Development of modern science and new economic and political ideas.
3. Age of democratic revolution. English, American, and French revolutions. Impact of French revolution upon other countries. Causes and effects of revolutions.
4. Industrialization of Europe.
5. Development of European state system. Emphasis upon unification of Germany.
6. International rivalries and World War I.
7. The period between wars. Emphasis upon domestic affairs and economic problems. Rise of dictatorships. Impact of West upon rest of the world. India, China, and Japan in early nineteenth century. Rise of nationalism in colonial world. Economic development in colonial areas.
8. World War II.
9. The present world situation.

Strayer suggested an alternative pattern for teachers not so attached to the idea of continuity. In this plan, the world history course would begin with a survey of Graeco-Roman civilization at its height, followed by treatment of early India or early China. A study of medieval Europe would follow "in order to get some ideas about important elements in our civilization, especially Christianity and the Church." Following this posthole, a jump could be made to the eighteenth century and the intellectual, political, and economic changes of that period. The remainder of the course would follow the same pattern as Strayer outlined in the first scheme. Half the time in such a course would be devoted to the history of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. (see Strayer, 1962, p. 39).

Neither Strayer nor anyone else has developed materials based on his plans of organization, and it is difficult to determine how many teachers have adopted either of his suggestions. Any teacher desiring to use either of these plans would have to assemble the reading materials and teaching aids on his own.

Research on methods of organizing the world histroy course indicates that most teachers of world history use the chronological approach, either alone or in combination with another method. The Illinois Council for the Social Studies found that, of 221 replies, 158 teachers—seventy-one percent—indicated that they organized their world history courses chronologically (see Siemers, 1959, p. 54). The Illinois survey questionnaire was not constructed in such a way that it can be determined what percentage of teachers used exclusively the chronological method of course organization. In California, Siemers (1959) found that 78 percent of the teachers in his sample organized their courses according to the principle of chronology. Thirty-seven percent of the California teachers surveyed used this method exclusively. Mehlinger discovered that 75 percent of the teachers in his Kansas sample let the textbook serve as the basis for the organization of their courses. Since most textbooks in 1958 were organized on the basis of chronology, one would have to assume that chronology also served as the organizing principle of most courses. Mehlinger reported, however, that only 43 percent of the teachers sampled indicated that they followed a chronological pattern (Mehlinger, 1959, p. 45). Pulliam, in his 1968 sample of Delaware teachers, found that 53 percent organized their courses chronologically. Ten percent used this method exclusively.

A second traditional method of organizing the world history course has been by topics. According to Sidney N. Barnett (1949, pp. 63-69), topical organizations of world history follow variations of one of three patterns: (1) a logical organization of each topic, starting with earliest times and coming up to the present; (2) an organization starting with the present; and (3) a special theme organization centering about one motivating idea. The first two of these patterns form the basis of most world history courses organized around topics. The following course outline published by the New York State Education Department in 1948 is an example of alternative number one, above.

1. An Introduction to the Study of World History (2 weeks)
2. The Development of Governmental Institutions (6 weeks)
3. Nationalism and Internationalism (5 weeks)
4. Social and Cultural Patterns (7 weeks)
5. The Industrial Revolution and World Economic Relationships (8 weeks)
6. The Crisis of the Atomic Age (4 weeks)

According to this course outline, in their study of governmental institutions (part 2), students would first try to find answers to such questions as: "What is government?" "How did it begin?" "What are the functions of government?" "What forms has it taken?" and "How do governments change over time?" After determining answers to these questions, students would study specific governments to see how they developed and how they functioned.

An example of a course organized on the basis of topics starting with the present (alternative number two) would be as follows (Barnett, 1949, p. 65):

1. One World
2. Our Civilization and Its Family Tree
3. Our Ideas of Government Rooted in the Past
4. Our Largest Co-workers in the United Nations
5. Democratic Ideas at Work in the World Today
6. Concern for Human Welfare
7. East of Europe and West of Asia: The Middle East
8. Town and Town Dwellers in the Development of World Civilization
9. War, the Scourge of Mankind; Peace, Its Hope
10. Colonial Peoples in One World
11. The Pendulum of History

The problems approach to world history is a variation of the topical form of organization. Students first identify a current problem and then study its historical backgrounds, either chronologically or under subtopics. In either case, the organization is essentially topical; the problems approach merely provides a different basis for the selection of topics to be studied, and the topics vary from one year to another. Obviously, all topical organizations use chronology extensively, just as chronological courses use some topical analysis.

Edith West has argued that topical organizations, which never were widespread, have declined in popularity in recent years. She cited a number of reasons for the failure of the topical organization to win widespread support among teachers (1949, p. 596). A major factor was the scarcity of suitable materials for the course pattern. In addition, teachers trained in a

chronological pattern found the topical organization both alien to their point of view and difficult to teach. According to West (1964, p. 596),

> Teachers object to the (topical) organization on a number of grounds. The study of separate topics, they claim, fails to show the inter-relationships of all aspects of any culture; consequently, pupils are likely to develop over-simplified ideas about cause-effect relationships. Studying each topic from earliest times to the present makes it difficult for pupils to develop a good time framework. In addition, the topical organization does not make it easy to include study of areas in the non-Western world; at least such areas are ignored in most topical courses not organized around problems.

Siemers found that 30 percent of the California teachers in his sample made some use of the topical approach, while eight percent used this method of organization exclusively (1959, p. 58). The Illinois Council for the Social Studies found that 36 percent of the teachers in its sample made use of the topical approach. It is not possible to determine from the data how many Illinois teachers used the topical method exclusively (see Siemers, 1959).

Mehlinger and Pulliam found that 15 percent of their Kansas and Delaware samples used the topical approach (Mehlinger, 1959, p. 45; Pulliam, 1968). Three percent of Pulliam's sample used this method exclusively.

A third way of organizing a world history course is by geographical areas. In recent years, this approach to the study of world history has become increasingly popular with teachers. Normally, the units in such a course are focused upon broad regions such as Western Europe, the Soviet Union, the Far East, the Middle East, Africa south of the Sahara, and Latin America.

Ethel Ewing has developed one of the best-known area organizations. In Our Widening World, she proposes the following units (1961, pp. iii-v):

1. Far Eastern Society (China, Korea, and Japan, taught separately)
2. India and Southeast Asia (taught separately)
3. The Middle East and Moslem Society (including North Africa)
4. Slavic Society
5. Western European Society
6. Anglo-American Society
7. Latin American Society
8. The World in Which We Live
9. A Supplementary Chapter on Independence Comes to Africa South of the Sahara

Ewing's approach to the teaching of world history combines the methodologies of the anthropologist and the historian. In an article which appeared in the Twentieth Yearbook of the National Council of the Social Studies, Ewing recommended that world history students study in chronological order those important eras in a particular region's past when "basic adaptations were being made or far reaching changes were evolving." Ewing suggested students analyze these important eras according to: (1) the geography as it was then; (2) the state of technology at that time; (3) the organizations of people for living together; (4) other aspects of the culture such as art, language, literature, and philosophy; and (5) the interrelationships of all parts of the culture and of the culture with other parts of the world. By studying the total culture complex in different eras, Ewing argued, students would perceive both cultural change and cultural continuity (1949, p. 76).

As Ewing perceives it, the last unit, "The World in Which We Live," does not focus upon political strife among nations, but places at least equal emphasis upon economic and social problems facing the world. "This unit," writes Ewing, "provides an opportunity to take account of two pertinent facts: that all peoples are forced to modify their way of living to meet the new conditions of the twentieth century, and that peoples usually change as little as necessary and make the type of change that is in accordance with their tradition or culture (1949, p. 83)."

Wesst (1964) found that a key difference between Ewing's approach and that followed in many area studies is a lack of emphasis upon the present day and political relationships among nations. Ewing feels that pupils can develop a "sense of frustration from undue puzzling over contemporary affairs as yet unresolved." In most of the units in her textbook, the most modern era in each culture region is treated more sketchily than the others, with little emphasis upon current problems.

Lefton S. Stavrianos, Professor of History at Northwestern University, has developed another variation of the area study approach. He proposes that the world history course be organized as follows (1967, p. v):

1. Man's Physical World
2. A Survey of World History

a. Man Before Civilization
b. Civilized Man Lives in Regional Isolation
c. Man Lives in Global Unity

3. The World's Major Culture Areas
   a. United States
   b. Soviet Union
   c. Latin America
   d. Middle East
   e. India
   f. China
4. Our World Today

The organization of Stavrianos' Global History of Man is different from the chronological approach followed by most textbook authors today. Part One gives a brief but clear account of the geographic factors which have influenced the course of world history. Part Two makes a rapid survey of man's history from his appearance on this planet to the present. This section of the book really serves as an overview of world history and provides the student with a time framework into which events in each area can be placed. Part Two serves as a substitute for an area study of Western Europe, although it does not emphasize the current situation as much as do the other units.

Part Three is devoted to a detailed analysis of seven of the world's major culture regions. Each of the seven units in this part is divided into four sections; Basic Facts, Politics, Economics, and Culture. This makes organization of each regional unit much different from that in Ewing's course (see Ewing, 1961). Stavrianos begins each unit with a study of basic facts on the geography, the people, and other present-day cultural features such as language and religion. He then treats politics, economics, and other cultural features, in that order. The focus is on examination of historical antecedents of present institutions. For example, after studying the present government of a region, Stavrianos takes the student back to the historical origins of government in that region. These "historical flashbacks," as Stavrianos calls them, are not organized chronologically. Rather, they include a mixture of topics. The sections on present-day economics and on other cultural features are followed in each region by a study of earlier events and characteristics of the people which will help students understand the present situation. In describing this flashback technique, Stavrianos explains (1967, p. vi): "Present conditions and institutions are described and their explanations sought in selected historical events and forces. By

using this technique, long lists of names, dates, events and dynasties, and the like, are avoided, and emphasis is placed upon the great forces of world history."

Part Four attempts to pull together the historical threads which make up "Our World Today." This final section of the book is divided into three parts; "Forces Uniting the World," "Forces Dividing the World," and the role of the United Nations in attempting to reduce global disunity and friction.

Siemers' California study (1959) and the study of the world history course in Illinois by the Illinois Council for the Social Studies (1957), were both conducted before the publication of the Stavrianos text. The Illinois Council found that 34 percent of the teachers in its sample used the area approach. Twenty-eight percent of Siemers' California sample used this approach (p. 62). It is doubtful whether many Illinois or California teachers followed the approach Ewing conceived. Of the eighteen world history textbooks cited by teachers as basic texts in Siemers' California sample, Ewing's was listed six times. Mehlinger's 1958 sample of Kansas teachers revealed that 11 percent organized their world history courses by geographical regions (1959, p. 45). In 1968, Pulliam found that 28 percent of the teachers in his Delaware sample made use of the area study approach, 13 percent of whom used this method exclusively.

Since the advent of the new social studies projects, scholars have suggested three new ways of organizing history courses. One suggestion, first made in 1953 by Paul R. Hanna and Richard Gross at Stanford University, advanced the idea of organizing social studies courses around generalizations. According to Hanna and Gross, generalizations from the social sciences were to serve as guides for selecting content in the social studies. They defined a generalization as "a universally applicable statement at the highest level of abstraction relevant to all time or stated times about man, past and/or present, engaging in a basic human activity." Typical generalizations are as follows (Hanna and Lee, 1962, p. 73):

1. Prevention of soil erosion through sound soil management programs will remove soil as a polluting influence on streams.
2. The development of communication and transportation routes in any area is vitally affected by the physical factors of terrain and climate.
3. . . . the poorer a family, the greater the proportion of its total expenditure is used for food.

The idea is to identify the generalizations used in the social sciences that teachers feel students should know, arrange these generalizations in ascending order of difficulty, and select appropriate teaching strategies and materials for teaching them, thereby letting these generalizations serve as the organizing basis of the course. On the whole, historians have not been satisfied with attempts to organize history courses around generalizations. Their main criticism has been that generalizations fail to help students learn the process by which social scientists develop generalizations. This process or methodology is important, historians of the new school argue, and that it consequently should serve as the organizing framework of all history courses.

A second suggestion that has been made by directors of the social studies projects has emphasized the use of concepts as the organizing principle of history courses. What is usually meant by "concept" is a classification category—revolution, liberalism, or mercantilism may serve as examples. During the 1960s, a number of scholars attempted to identify groups of concepts central to the social science disciplines. Fenton points out that from this work have come "fresh understanding of the nature of concepts and one or two impressive attempts to identify a small number of concepts as basic guidelines for curriculum developers." He argues that an understanding of important concepts can be of considerable use to students in certain situations by enabling them to think and work as social scientists. The example Fenton offers concerns four concepts from sociology—social class, status, roles, and norms. He claims an understanding of these concepts will provide a student who wants to analyze the society of Boston in 1950, for example, with new tools to guide him in his search for data. According to Fenton, these concepts are "imposed conceptions which guide the search for data toward issues which sociologists have found useful for the analysis of society." (See Fenton, 1967, p. 14.)

Most historians, including Fenton and Richard Brown, Director of the Amherst Project, prefer, however, to use analytical questions as the basis of organization. A close connection frequently exists between analytical questions and concepts. As Fenton points out on page 14 (1967),

> Some analytical questions grow out of concepts. The concept of leadership, for example, implies a number of analytical questions: Who are

> the leaders? What are their attributes? How did they gain and maintain support from their followers? What were the "rules of the game" which they followed?

Fenton and Brown argue that these questions and dozens of similar ones help historians to bring order to data as they conduct their research. What historians take down in notes, they maintain, is governed largely by the questions they put to the documents they consult. The more concepts or analytical questions a student carries in his head, the more fruitful tools for inquiry he possesses. According to Brown and Fenton, learning to use concepts and analytical questions should be the key objective of the social studies because these analytical questions control inquiry. The development of concepts and analytical questions controls the formulation of hypotheses and the method by which a discipline arrives at its conclusions. In other words, they are the keys to the historian's methodology.

The objective of the Amherst American History Project, according to Brown (1966, p. 445), is

> . . . giving the student not the conclusions of the scholars but the raw materials with which the scholar works, asking him to formulate the question and work his way through to his own conclusions, developing, in so doing, a sense of the structure of the (historical) discipline. In history, as in other fields, the goal is to get him to develop his critical and conceptual faculties, to give him some sense of the nature of a fact, of the limits of generalizations, and of the relationship between hypothesis, evidence, and proof—in short to encourage him to relate knowledge to inquiry and to help him develop the intellectual tools of inquiry.

Brown indicates what this objective means for the organization of a history course (p. 445):

> . . . effectively not from A to Z, but from the inside out, with a student starting somewhere, perhaps anywhere, and moving backwards and forward in time in truly inductive fashion, as inquiry leads him.

At the present time, the only world history materials on the market organized on the basis of analytical questions are those produced by Edwin Fenton with the Carnegie-Mellon University Project (see Carnegie Foundation, 1959). Similar materials from Edith West's Minnesota Project (see West, 1970) should follow shortly. Much work remains to be done in this field, however, before a revolutionary new world history course can hope to emerge.

VII: STRATEGIES IN THE TEACHING OF WORLD HISTORY

Surveys of student opinions of world history courses reveal that students find the study of world history, as conducted in most classrooms throughout the United States, to be dull and unexciting (Fraser, 1949, p. 25). Students cannot see what difference the history of the world, composed of a multitude of facts and dates, makes to them personally. The behavior of students upon entry into world history classrooms differs starkly from their behavior in science, foreign language, music, art, physical education, home economics, and industrial arts classrooms. Students entering a chemistry or biology lab session know what is expected of them and fall eagerly to the task of testing a mystery solution in chemistry or of preparing to dissect a frog in biology. In the language laboratory, students pick up their audio tapes, thread them onto the playback units, and commence with the day's assignment. In shop, young boys are anxious to begin work on their vases, and girls enter sewing class eager to work on their dresses or other projects. But the same students shuffle into the world history classroom, slap their books on the desks, and either take quick cat-naps or converse with friends about what is happening after class. In world history courses throughout the nation, students are conditioned to wait for the teacher to seize the initiative and begin class. Virtually without exception, world history class sessions begin with the teacher talking and students listening, and too many sessions end the way they begin. Students whose drive for success and recognition compels them to take copious notes emerge from such sessions with writer's cramp. Students who lack this drive sleep or rebel.

The primary purpose of teaching is to facilitate learning – not to dispense information. A variety of techniques exists for teachers to employ in facilitating student learning. Role-playing, visits to museums or historical sites, debates, guest speakers, book reviews, educational films, and bulletin board displays are but a few examples from an almost endless list. The teacher's task is to arrange these techniques into a sequence that will help students achieve stated objectives. Educators call such a sequence of learning activities an instructional strategy. The development of instructional strategies should consume the full time and energy of teachers. To devote his full time to the creation of learning activities for his students means that a teacher must have command of the subject matter material for

his course. The fact that world history teachers devote little, if any, time to the creation of learning activities may explain why students find world history courses boring and uninteresting.

Teachers of world history receive virtually no help in developing a conception of the integrated history of the peoples of the world. Since a course in world history is seldom offered at the college or university level, the only exposure a world history teacher has to such a course usually dates back to his own high school experience. The typical world history teacher has completed approximately 18 hours of work in history courses other than United States history. (See Chapter IX of this study.) Half these hours are generally spent studying the history of Western Europe; the other half consists of a smattering of three hours each of course work in the history of China, Russia, and the Middle East, or possibly Latin America. Never has the student been confronted with an integrated study of the history of mankind. Even if he desired such a course, the future world history teacher would almost surely never find it offered in the history department of any major or minor American college or university. With no preparation in the integrated history of mankind and with meager preparation, at best, in specific areas of the world, the young history major becomes a novice teacher of world history.

The initial school days of a neophyte world history teacher are frightening. In a desperate rush to construct some sort of syllabus for his students, he drags forth his old university lecture notes, only to find them totally unsuitable for the task at hand. He ransacks the desk drawers and filing cabinets in his room in hopes that his predecessor may have left outlines or tests that might prove helpful. Next, he seeks the advice of an experienced world history teacher in his school to see what he can borrow or steal from his syllabus. While occasionally this is helpful, it hardly solves the neophyte's problem, since an instructor's syllabus is a brief outline of what the individual teacher expects to cover in his course and reflects the few strengths in world history which he personally possesses. The neophyte, pressed now by the lack of time into a state of frenzy, hurriedly checks the library to determine what resources are on hand in case time permits their use in the future. Finally, in desperation, he turns to the textbook, which provides him with a much needed psychological crutch and gives his first

world history course a sense of direction.

When the students arrive, the new teacher is ready to make his first assignment. Students are to read pages 1 through 15 in their textbook and then to answer questions 1 through 8 at the end of the chapter. The teacher attempts to stimulate students to complete the assignment by giving them an overview of the unit. This brief monologue takes about ten minutes. Students are then given class time to read the assigned pages and to begin answering the questions. Questions not answered in class are completed as homework.

During the next class session, students recite their answers to the eight questions. The teacher's role is to press students to make sure all essential facts are covered. Following the recitation period, the teacher attempts to summarize what students have supposedly learned and to add whatever details he feels the textbook omitted. This monologue consumes approximately ten minutes. The teacher prepares his abbreviated lecture from his university class notes or from an old college history textbook. About half-way through the period (after collecting and dispensing with the previous day's homework assignment), the teacher makes the day's assignment—pages 16 through 30 and questions 9 through 16. Time is then given for students to read the assigned material and to begin answering end-of-chapter questions. Questions not answered by the end of class are completed as homework.

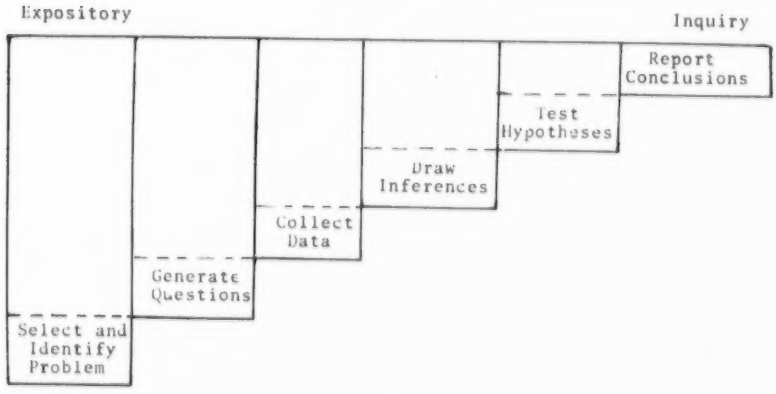
During the following class period, the teacher follows the same routine as on the preceding day. Students recite answers to questions; the teacher praises those who have done a good job and reprimands those who have prepared poorly or not at all; the teacher delivers his ten-minute monologue, which he has to interrupt frequently to discipline students not paying attention; finally, a new assignment is made and students are granted class time to read and answer text questions. During the study period, the teacher rides herd on the group so that those not interested in this type of activity do not bother the few who are. For one-hundred and eighty days, year after year, this ritual is re-enacted in world history classrooms throughout America.

The teacher works feverishly each evening trying to answer the questions posed in the textbook, reading supplementary materials to find out more than

the textbook contains about the subject, and preparing his daily monologue. Every two weeks there is a test to develop and papers to grade. Rarely, if ever, is the world history teacher able to consider alternative teaching strategies during the first two or three years of his teaching experience. By the end of his third year, he is frozen into a strategy which he repeats year after year, to generation after generation of students.

In recent years, social studies educators have given considerable thought to different kinds of teaching strategies. These strategies run the gamut from exposition to inquiry. Although all the thinking about these strategies is not new, recent discussions have been cast in a framework that makes the strategies more useful to the classroom teacher. Edwin Fenton suggests that we can imagine exposition and inquiry as the two poles of a continuum on which any type of strategy devised for instructional purposes can be placed (1967, p. 33).

Educators have identified at least six steps in the development of any given lesson: (1) selecting and identifying the problem; (2) generating questions or forming hypotheses about the problem; (3) collecting data; (4) drawing inferences; (5) testing hypotneses; and (6) reporting conclusions. These steps can be plotted on the expository-inquiry continuum as shown below:



In an expository lesson that fell to the far left on this continuum, the teacher would perform all six of these lesson-developing functions, regardless of whether he uses the textbook, a film, or a guest speaker as the vehicle for imparting the information to students. In a pure inquiry lesson, the student would perform all six functions. Classroom lessons hardly ever fall at either extreme of the continuum. The preponderance of lessons in world history classrooms do, however, fall toward the expository (or left) end of the continuum. Few, if any, lessons fall to the right of the mid-point, which Fenton has identified as directed inquiry. In a directed inquiry lesson, the teacher would select and identify the problem, generate questions or formulate hypotheses about it, and collect data for students to interpret; students would then perform the other three functions—that is, draw inferences, test hypotheses, and report conclusions.

In order to obtain a clearer understanding of these three different teaching strategies—expository, inquiry, and directed inquiry—it would be helpful to consider an example of each strategy and to identify the differentiating characteristics of each.

An example of an expository lesson would be for students to read the following selection about "Nineteenth Century Imperialism" (from Habberton and Roth, 1958, pp. 515-516) and to answer the questions at the end of the passage.

Factors in Nineteenth Century Imperialism

Empires old and new. The struggle for empire became more intense as new and powerful nations developed. You will recall that, between the sixteenth and the eighteenth centuries, various parts of the world had been claimed by the Portuguese, the Spanish, the Dutch, the English, and the French. When Germany and Italy became strong states, they, too, wanted empires. They needed raw materials for their industries and "living room" for their increasing populations. Furthermore, they felt that they needed overseas territories for reasons of national glory and greatness. Meanwhile France, having lost Alsace-Lorraine, sought to increase her colonial possessions. England saw in all these Continental ambitions a threat to her own colonial supremacy. She therefore sought to strengthen her empire, on which her own industrial prosperity depended.

New complications came with the emergence of Russia and the United States as the largest nations in the world. Other leading nations, too, felt they must expand in order to hold their own.

New lands for conquest. Meanwhile, exploration was offering new lands

for conquest. The surface of the earth had been little more than half-explored in 1800, but by 1900 the interiors of Africa and Australia were no longer blank spaces on a map. Much of South America was explored and settled within these years; parts of Siberia and Turkestan were for the first time described by travelers. In 1900 the only parts of the world which remained unknown were the polar regions and a portion of remote, mountainous Tibet.

Asia, though it had been known and occupied for many centuries, was another field for European conquest. Here native populations were unable to resist Western penetration. Since South America was protected by the Monroe Doctrine and the British navy from European conquest, the European nations turned to other continents to satisfy their ambitions and their need for markets and raw materials. Africa was the most important scene of exploitation; Asia came next.

The spread of Western Civilization. Thus the civilization of the Western world was carried to Asia, Africa, Australia, and the islands of the seven seas between 1850 and 1900. Few movements in modern times have more significantly affected world history. The immediate results were industrialization in Japan, revolution and civil war in China, and two world wars, which began in 1914 and 1939. In time the spread of Western civilization led to native uprisings from the Netherlands Indies across Burma and into the Middle East.

The story of nineteenth-century imperialism does not end in the year 1900 but runs over into our own century, the twentieth. It was not until just before the First World War that the division of Africa was completed, that Asia was opened to world trade, that the islands of the Pacific were apportioned. In the year 1914 the stage was set, the curtain ready to rise on a new struggle for empire.

Questions:

1. Why was there a new race for colonies among European nations in the latter part of the nineteenth century?

2. What were some of the results of the spread of Western civilization in in the 19th century?

In considering different kinds of teaching strategies, it is helpful to think in terms of what students do and what the teacher does. Characteristics of the expository lesson illustrated above are shown in Table 11.

Characteristics of an inquiry lesson differ markedly from those of an expository lesson. In one inquiry lesson, students are given population graphs (below) of four unidentified countries (from Massialas and Zevin, 1967, pp. 109-110).

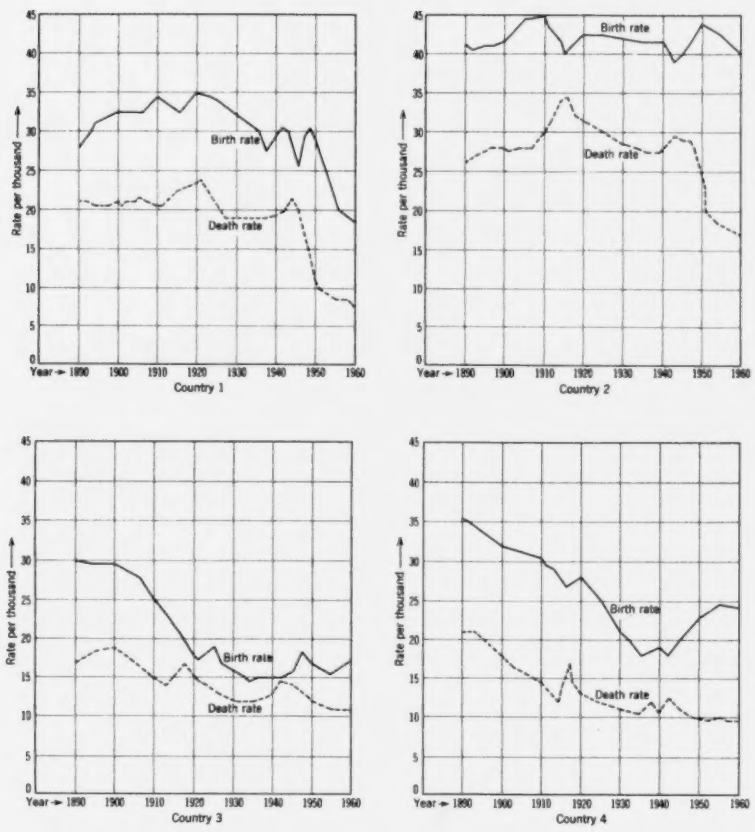


TABLE 11. CHARACTERISTICS OF AN EXPOSITORY LESSON

INSTRUCTOR'S ROLE	STUDENT'S ROLE
Formulate lesson objective(s)	Read assigned material (take notes on lecture, film, and so on)
Select and/or prepare instructional materials	Assimilate information and explanation presented by the instructor
Determine when to introduce lesson	Ask instructor for additional explanation of difficult points
Answer questions raised by students	Complete, check test of instructor
Check to see if students understood main parts of reading (lecture, film)	

After giving students the graphs, the teacher waits patiently for them to initiate discussion. Students unfamiliar with an inquiry lesson will just sit, quietly (or not so quietly) waiting for explicit instructions about what they should do with the graphs. If the instructor waits long enough, a frustrated student will eventually ask, "What are we supposed to do?" The teacher's role is to remain non-directive; therefore, he will reply, "What do you think you could do with them?" The teacher will respond only to student questions, and then only in an indirect manner. Eventually students will be drawn into the lesson and begin to ask the kinds of questions careful consideration of the given data can help answer. By considering the rise and fall of the birth and death rates in the periods 1914-1918 and 1939-1945, students can determine which of these countries were involved in the two world wars. They can see also that birth and death rates of country number 3 began to decline at about the turn of the twentieth century—a telltale sign of an early industrialized nation. Both the birth and death rates of country number 2 are quite high, an indication that this country is what is commonly described as underdeveloped (Massialas and Zevin, 1967, pp. 106-124).

Although this lesson would fall at the inquiry end of the teaching strategy continuum, it would not be a pure inquiry lesson for the simple reason that the instructor has performed several of the functions; for example, he has provided students with some data, which students would have had to collect on their own in a "pure" inquiry lesson.

Compare the characteristics of an inquiry lesson shown in Table 12 with those of the expository lesson (Table 11).

A third teaching strategy which could provide variety in the world history classroom is frequently called directed inquiry. The following lesson about the Asante people of Africa is an example of a directed inquiry lesson (from Beyer, 1971, pp. 1-6).

Among the peoples who live in Africa today are a group who call themselves Asante. What are they like?

Most of us may know something about Africans, but we probably don't know much about the Asante. However, if we had a little information about the Asante, perhaps we could answer this question. Here is a list of words commonly spoken by the Asante today. Examine these words and their English meanings. What are the Asante like?

List here some of the characteristics of the Asante.

Now, how do you know whether or not these really are characteristics of the Asante? What can you do to find out?

ASANTE	ENGLISH				
abankesee	fort, castle	edɔm	army	bayere	yam
abena	pod	etoɔ	tax	bese	cola
adifudee	bargain	ohusuani	kinsman	dwa	market
adua	bean	ohuriie	tsetse fly	frafra	compound
adwa	stool	okra	soul	futuro	dust
afiase	shop, store	onimdefoɔ	clever	hoahoa ho	boast
afuo	farm	onuabaa	sister	kobere	copper
agrohemmaa	queen	osidifoɔ	adversary	kokoo	cocoa
agya	uncle, father	osuo	rain	kotoko	porcupine
ahennwa	throne	ɔhene	chief, king	kunininana	grandparent
akotadee	armor	ɔhɔhoɔ	alien	kwabɔhorɔ	mahogany
akuraa	village	ɔhokwafoɔ	independent	mprampuro	bamboo
amena	shaft, pit	ɔhyee	heat	nakumaa	aunt
ananse	spider	ɔkokobirifoɔ	brave	nana	sir
apam	alliance	ɔsom	allegiance	nkabɔmu	confederacy
asafo	company	ɔtomfoɔ	blacksmith	nkoron	mine

TABLE 12. CHARACTERISTICS OF AN INQUIRY LESSON

INSTRUCTOR'S ROLE	STUDENT'S ROLE
Formulate lesson objective(s)	Identify a problem
Select and/or prepare instructional materials	State problem in own words
Determine when to introduce lesson	Ask questions which may lead to solution of problem
Sustain and reinforce initial perplexity of students	Formulate hypotheses
Establish attitude that every statement stands on its supporting data	Collect data
Direct discussion by recognizing students to speak	Draw inferences from data
Permit direct student-to-student exchange of ideas	Test logic of inferences against data, common sense, and experience
Introduce new ways of looking at an issue	Synthesize data and inferences into a conclusion
Raise additional questions	
Reward students for imaginative and creative work	
Reward students for participation in the dialogue of inquiry	

Supposse we had some photographs of the Asante. If the things listed above are really characteristic of the Asante, what do you want to see in these photographs? Pick one or two of the characteristics listed above and then list the evidence you want to see in the photographs that will convince you that what you have listed really are characteristics of the Asante.

On the following pages are four photographs recently taken in Asanteland. Examine them carefully. Can you find the evidence you want to find?

[After students examine the four pictures taken in Asanteland, they are asked:]

What did you find? To what extent did these photos confirm what you thought the Asante were like? To what extent did they contradict your guesses? What characteristics did you list that are neither confirmed nor contradicted by the photos? What new ideas about the Asante do you have as a result of looking at these photos?

Now what are the Asante like?

In this lesson about the Asante, the teacher selected the problem, formulated the questions, and provided students with the required data; students drew inferences from the data, formulated to some extent, and then tested their hypotheses, and reported their final conclusion. Characteristics of a directed inquiry lesson are shown in Table 13.

TABLE 13. CHARACTERISTICS OF A DIRECTED INQUIRY LESSON

INSTRUCTOR'S ROLE	STUDENT'S ROLE
Identify problem	Read assigned material
Determine lesson objectives	
Develop appropriate questions	Complete assigned questions
Select and/or prepare data to answer the questions	Check correctness of answers against instructor's or author's explanations
Determine when to introduce lesson	Ask questions of teacher if points are unclear
Determine student activities which lead to completion of lesson	Ask other students to support their conclusions with data
Explain correct answers and reasons why they are correct	Participate in class discussion
Participate in activities designed to lead students to achievement of lesson objective(s)	Participate in activities designed to lead students to achievement of lesson objective(s)

The monotony of the world history classroom could be alleviated considerably, maybe even completely, if teachers would frequently vary their teaching strategies. Research does not indicate that students learn more or less from any one of the strategies, although the objectives of a lesson sometimes make the selection of one of the strategies a better choice over another. For example, if the teacher's goal is to induce students to reflect about a particular value, inquiry seems to be a better vehicle for helping students achieve the objective. What is clear is that there is too much sameness and too little student involvement in typical world history classrooms. The use of different teaching strategies will provide the needed variety in the course, and the use of more lessons that approach the inquiry end of the teaching strategies continuum will increase student involvement in daily lessons.

On the basis of their experience and intuition, educators can testify to the effectiveness of learning experiences in which the student takes an active part. Among recent innovations, educational games is a teaching technique (not a strategy) which offers promise of converting the staid, teacher-centered classroom into an active, student-centered one. Games represent an approach to or method of solving serious problems, and they harness the energy of play for the "business" of school. According to Alice Kaplan Gordon, author of the book Games For Growth (1970, p. 18), "games increase student motivation, clarify difficult concepts and processes, help to socialize the student, and integrate classes of diverse ability levels."

If the use of simulation games did nothing more than motivate world history students, then that would be sufficient justification for using them. The first hurdle for every world history teacher is overcoming the apathy and resistance of students to the study of world history. There is no doubt that simulation games stimulate students to act and to make decisions, and students find this both challenging and exciting. Instead of being passive recipients of information, students are active decision-makers (see Gordon, 1970, pp. 19-20).

Game theorists argue that games do more, however, than motivate students. Educational games can convey important information, although this information may appear in unorthodox form. For example, one experimental game in history is designed to teach not only the process of

revolution in general, but also the specific causes of the English Civil War. As described by Alice Gordon, the game takes the form of role-playing, where each player represents a real historical character, as outlined in a profile. Most players are prominent country gentlemen and Members of Parliament who are Puritan and devoted to the constitutional rights of Englishmen. A small number of students play royal advisers and sympathizers, and one portrays King Charles I. Players are informed that Parliament has been dissolved by the king, who is attempting to rule without it. Unknown to the players is the fact that two teams exist, each with different rules. The Royalist group has the objective of obtaining revenue (a specific sum) in each cycle. The parliamentary actors have the objective of making as much money as possible and resisting what they believe are illegal methods of taxation. The basic course of action for the Royalist group is to impose taxes and to control religious beliefs. The basic course of action for the parliamentary group is to invest in trading companies and to respond to the Royalists' attempts at taxation and religious control. Contingencies, such as the trial of John Hampden, for example, are introduced at various points in the game through the device of news bulletins. The final bulletin announces the invasion of the Scots, who demand a large sum of money from King Charles. The game is rigged to make it impossible for Charles to raise the money without calling Parliament, at which point the population has the opportunity to demand redress of grievances before assenting to taxation.

Gordon argues that the game conveys information in several ways—the profiles give detailed portraits of individual characters; the news bulletins describe specific events of the period; the roles and rules introduce such institutions as parliamentary government and monarchy. In playing the game, students become aware of two existing views of the issues, (1) to understand the social, religious, economic, and political aspects of the conflict, and (2) to analyze the possible resolutions of the conflict, as well as the specific historical one; then they generalize the factors in the conflict and apply the generalizations to other cases. This is a large order, but Gordon and other game specialists believe it is one filled better by this game than by any text or lecture (Gordon, 1970, pp. 27-28).

Although the use of games to achieve educational goals is a new trend and a final assessment of their usefulness has not been completed, it appears that the development and use of more simulation games similar to the one described above will breathe new life into the morbid world history classroom.

Future curriculum projects must give serious consideration to the development of interesting learning activities such as simulation games and to the consideration of a variety of teaching strategies.

VIII: MATERIALS

Since the conception of the world history course, heavy reliance has been placed on the textbook as the primary vehicle for transmission of knowledge about man's development. Tyron observed that, from 1860 to 1890, the history text was worshiped as the "King of Kings of content organization" (1935, pp. 154-155). This exaltation of the textbook has been largely maintained even to the present. The 1957 study by the Illinois Council for the Social Studies revealed that 99 percent of the teachers surveyed utilized a basic text (see Siemers 1959, p. 220). Mehlinger (1959, p. 67), surveying secondary school teachers in Kansas, found a "heavy reliance upon textbook organization." Seventy-five percent of the teachers sampled indicated that they organized their courses around the text, while, in his California study of the same year, Siemers reported that 92 percent of the teachers sampled employed a basic textbook (p. 106).

Despite recent efforts of some teachers to reorient themselves in favor of multi-text and/or multi-media approaches, the single-text continues to rank as the primary instructional medium. The 1968 Delaware survey showed that 68 percent of the world history teachers sampled employed a basic text, while 32 percent utilized multi-texts. Whereas Mehlinger found ten basic texts being used, the Delaware survey revealed that, among the group of teachers using just one text, thirteen different texts were represented, even though the number of teachers included in the sample was considerably smaller than in Mehlinger's study.

The practice of employing a single text has come under considerable fire from all quarters. Ralph Cordier, President of the National Council for the Social Studies, has written that "while the textbook is the most widely used tool of learning in the American classroom, it is also the most misused (see Cordier, 1968, p. 437). Nevertheless, Leinwand and Feins, in their methods textbook for pre-service social studies teachers (1968, p. 176), maintained that "whatever its limitations and despite the growth of newer instructional media, the text remains central to our instruction and, properly used, it is still instrumental in making effective social studies teaching possible."

A question of particular relevance to world history instruction is that of the single- versus the multi-text approach. One obvious advantage of the single-text approach is that it provides a common reference source for all students and, if properly researched and written, can save the teacher much time and effort. On the other hand, it cannot compensate for individual reading levels and exposes the student to only one point of view. The multi-text approach insures a more complete and far more objective treatment of all topics but, at the same time, demands a teacher of extraordinary organizational ability.

The question of single- versus multi-text and textbook versus multi-media is one to which the individual instructor holds the answer. Fenton, nevertheless, suggests a basic guideline for answering the question of textbook employment (1967, p. 69): "A textbook should be the basic guide to what is taught only if the text can present materials for most objectives more effectively than any other material can." Before a teacher can make use of this guideline, he must develop clear objectives for his course.

Since its initial development, the world history text has borne a myriad of criticisms. The following critique was offered by an experienced history teacher in 1899 (from Tryon, 1935, p. 166).

> The list of defects in existing textbooks of European history is not exhaustive—a volume would be required for that—but it includes the most fundamental. Such defects are: (1) the cramming with meaningless names and dates, (2) the emphasis on what is passing and extraordinary rather than what is typical and permanent, (3) the neglect of causations, (4) projection of latter day moral standards into the past, and (5) the evident lack of scholarship on the part of the authors.

By stretching these points only slightly, one could apply these same criticisms to most current texts. What then are the major criticisms of world history texts currently being used?

One of the more serious criticisms hurled at modern world history textbooks is lack of scholarship on the part of the authors. Those who have investigated this aspect have charged that the widespread practice of refraining from inclusion of controversial issues has contributed, in large measure, to making textbooks lifeless and uninspiring. The avoidance of controversial issues in textbooks may well be due to the pressure exerted by certain interest groups.

Robert Carp, surveying censorship pressure in Iowa schools in 1966 and 1967, listed four major categories of pressure groups: (1) patriotic organizations; (2) conservative groups; (3) religious organizations; and (4) miscellaneous groups (such as the NAACP) (Carp, 1968, p. 487).

The central theme of the patriotic and conservative organizations is that "True Americanism"—as they define it—is no longer being taught and emphasized by the textbooks and teachers in the high schools. Essentially, these groups would purge the schools of all textbooks, reading material, and teachers which do not conform to their notion of "the American ideal." The religioud groups contend that "certain textbookds and teachers are too scientific in their approach to the study of history, and that they do not sufficiently emphasize the spiritual side of man's development." Further, "that certain outside reading material is too immoral to be read by high school students." A typical concern of one of the miscellaneous groups would be the treatment, or lack thereof, of African culture in world history texts.

An interesting aspect of Carp's study was that, in dealing with teacher perception of the problem, it revealed that 67 percent felt that censorship pressure was nonexistent, and 32 percent indicated they did not feel it was serious. Only one percent believed censorship pressure was a serious problem in Iowa schools (p. 488).

Louis A. Petrone, investigating the effects of conservative pressure on textbook revisions, concludes that one pressure group, America's Future, Inc., has enjoyed a certain degree of success in bringing about changes in textbook content. Table 14 summarizes the success or failure of this group in regard to world history textbooks. The method the organization used was published book reviews.

Petrone found more criticisms of United States history textbooks and more changes in subsequent editions. Although himself questioning the significance of his findings, Petrone recommends that if his findings are valid, a further investigation might be made into the degree to which state adoption committees adopt textbooks which are either recommended by America's Futue, Inc., or whose publishers have been found to make changes in compliance with its reviews.

TABLE 14. SUMMARY OF SIGNIFICANT CHANGES MADE IN SUBSEQUENT EDITIONS OF FIVE WORLD HISTORY TEXTBOOKS
(Petrone, 1967, p. 151)

TEXTBOOK	NUMBER OF SPECIFIC CRITICISMS IN REVIEW OF EARLIER EDITION	NUMBER OF SIGNIFICANT CHANGES IN SUBSEQUENT EDITION
Living World History	16	12
Our World Through the Ages (Platt and Drummond, 1967)	19	3
Men and Nations (Mazour and Peoples, 1968)	8	0
A Global History of Man (Stavrianos, 1967)*	10	0
The Making of Today's World (Hughes and Fullen, 1966)*	10	0

*Obtained favorable reviews from and were included in America's Future, Inc.'s list of recommended textbooks

John R. Palmer criticizes in particular the inaccuracies and lack of up-to-date scholarship in textbooks. Fenton, in support of the above, contends that most textbooks trail behind research reported in the journals by a decade or so. Palmer contends that these defects appear in part to be "the demands placed on authors by some publishers, but it certainly reflects the unwillingness of university scholars in the subject fields to assist in the preparation of school textbooks" (1965, p. 16). This problem was clearly defined over a decade ago in the Fifty-fourth Annual Report of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (1959, p. 24).

> It is a shocking fact that the content of high school courses and textbooks have been for many years a matter od indifference to the ablest and most renowned leaders in the subject fields concerned.

Content has been the focus of the greatest part of the criticism of texts. There are many factors which influence the content of current world history texts. Among them are: (1) content of concurrent texts; (2) educators; (3) world history teachers; (4) state adoption policies; and (5) pressure groups (discussed above).

One of the traditional initial steps of the writer in determining the content is to survey what other texts in the field include. A 1953 UNESCO study (Lauwerys, 1958, p. 21) charged that "the inclusion of subject matter is the result chiefly of consultation of other textbooks. Thus ancient errors are handed on and contact with first-hand up-to-date research grows more tenuous."

Alexander (1960) confirmed this charge by stating that, as a textbook reviewer for the New York City Office of Education, he noticed a striking similarity between many social studies texts. One of these similarities was undoubtedly the Europo-centric nature of the content, and the resultant neglect of non-Western civilizations.

Until recently, Asian, African, and Latin American civilizations have been treated as subsidiary developments to Western civilization. Furthermore, as the UNESCO (Lauwerys, 1958) study points out, "the notion that East and West were separate worlds is historically false, and it is wrong to express the differences between them simply as a clash." In addition, "the two religions, Islam and Christianity, are invariably compared, and differences rather than similarities are underlined."

In a 1961 study, John Robbins was concerned about the treatment of Asia in geography and history texts. Analyzing a limited sample, he gained three main impressions (see Lauwerys, 1958, p. 162):

1. The space devoted to Asia was inadequate.
2. The most crucial problems of contemporary Asia—poverty, hunger, political instability, economic weakness, vulnerability to communism, and the population explosion—were either overlooked or poorly handled.
3. The general impression left in the mind of the reader of inevitable progress and a bright future for all of Asia was at least misleading if not demonstrably false.

A specific criticism has been lodged by Paul D. Hines, who noted that six pages were alloted in one popular text to an explanation of Taoism and Confucianism, while only the same number of pages was devoted to the entire history of China since the fall of the Manchu emperors. In another text, incidents that influenced domestic politics in China, such as the Taiping Rebellion and the Reform of 1900, received little or no attention. In contrast, events which had international implications received adequate coverage

(Hines, 1967, pp. 196-215). These specific criticisms reinforce the contention that Asian civilization is not treated as an entity in itself, but largely in terms of its effect on the West, and that a lack of consensus exists about what subject matter should be included. An analysis of the treatment of Asian and other non-Western civilizations points out the urgent need to develop a basic conceptual framework for treating non-Western civilizations.

The treatment of Latin America in elementary and secondary school textbooks was the subject of a study conducted by Vito Perrone during 1964 and 1965 (1963, p. 10). Perrone's analysis of the treatment of Latin America in school textbooks revealed the following major findings:

1. Content is quantitatively adequate, but contains much dead wood.
2. The bias of the "Black Legend," with its excessive concentration on brutality and ineptness of the Spanish, remains a deficiency.
3. There exists a scarcity of materials with any degree of concentration on Latin America at the secondary level.
4. Efforts to avoid controversy bring little of the reality of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries.
5. Secondary textbooks, contrasted with elementary textbooks, place too much stress on foreign relations and the issues of conflict.
6. The maps which accompany descriptive material in secondary texts are poor in comparison to those included in elementary texts.
7. Although writers recognize the problem of when to generalize and when not to, there is a lack of consistent application to this principle.
8. Balance is lacking in texts at both the elementary and secondary levels.

The study of the treatment of Latin America in texts leads to the following general conclusions:

1. Textbook revision, while it has been positive, has not brought a significant change in the basic organization of content on Latin America. The title headings have remained and the quantitative space devoted to the possible topics remains unchanged. (The American Council of Education study of 1944 was used as the basic guide.) As long as this continues, there will be serious limitations to qualitative improvement of textbooks.
2. The study leaves unanswered the question of what should be studied about Latin America at the various grade levels to produce maximum understanding. It is apparent that present curriculum efforts are fragmentary. Social studies educators and Latin American scholars need to restructure the treatment of Latin American topics in the total curriculum.

3. The lack of material on Latin America for use at the secondary level is being overcome with supplementary materials, but this is not a totally adequate solution. Standard textbooks are still the main source of reading material and must be improved.

The inadequacy with with African civilizations have been treated in texts is reflected in part by the demands for the Black History course in our secondary schools and colleges. The general criticisms made of the treatment of Asia and Latin America are also valid for Africa. Food for thought has been furnished by the initial work of Project Africa at Carnegie-Mellon University. In discussing the treatment of African history in the traditional world history course, the directors of the project maintained that (Hicks and Beyer, 1968, p. 780):

> ...it [African history] is studied from the point of view of European exploration, colonialism and imperialism. The students see the region and its peoples through the eyes of explorers, missionaries, entrepreneurs, and adventurers. They study it only as an appendage of European history as an arena in which the destinies of western civilizations were enacted. This culture-bound view distorts Africa's past and gives little insight into the present.

Some idea of what needs to be done concerning the coverage of African history in world history texts is reflected in the general image of Africa which students surveyed by Project Africa held:

> Africa south of the Sahara appears as a primitive, backward, underdeveloped land of jungles and deserts, populated with wild animals such as elephants, tigers, and snakes and by black, naked savages, cannibals, and pygmies. Missionaries and witch doctors vie for control of the natives who live in villages, are prone to superstition and disease, and who hunt with spears and poison darts when not sitting in front of their huts beating on drums.

Seventh-grade students further described the natives as poor and dirty, while twelfth-grade students indicated that the natives were illiterate. The basic conclusion of the study is that American secondary school students have limited and often superficial knowledge of African peoples south of the Sahara.

Criticisms of current content of world history texts point toward many changes, among which the following appear to be the more important:

1. Construction of a basic conceptual framework, not only for non-Western civilizations, but also for world civilization as a whole.

2. Frank discussion of controversial issues.
3. Inclusion of more of the content of other social sciences such as economics, anthropology, sociology, and geography.
4. Restructuring of content to emphasize concepts and development of students' ability to ask analytical questions.

The inclusion of geographic generalizations in textbooks was the subject of an analysis made by Elizabeth Langhams in 1961. Her findings revealed that world history texts did not include direct reference to geographic generalizations, and that they included the least number of indirect references among social studies texts surveyed. Langhans concluded that "if these geographic generalizations are to be included in world history courses, they must be introduced in sources other than present world history textbooks. Teachers should know the generalizations and be able to bring them to the attention of students, especially if the implied references in world history texts are to be meaningful."

One of the most significant concepts to be treated in world history texts is that of social change. In 1961, John R. Palmer analyzed 27 history textbooks for their presentation of this concept (p. 136). His findings revealed that:

1. Only five of the 27 texts reviewed contributed "significantly" to an understanding of social change.
2. The majority of texts attempted no systematic explanation of the evolution of civilization.
3. In most history classes, texts are being used which take note of great many instances of change but offer little assistance toward an understanding of these changes.
4. The most serious deficiencies of the texts reviewed were those of analysis and interpretation.

With the multitude of world history texts in print, the problem of selecting an appropriate text becomes a crucial one. As Palmer notes (1965, p. 157), "when textbooks are not carefully chosen, there is apt to be much confusion, repetition of content year after year, significant gaps in the knowledge of the students, and a general lack of direction in the social studies program." Palmer recommends that before selecting a text, teachers should:

1. Clarify the objectives of the course.
2. Determine the role the textbook is expected to play in achieving these objectives.

3. Determine the teaching strategies that will be employed.
4. Determine if the characteristics of a given textbook are such as to permit such strategies.

In response to the question, "What criteria do you use in selecting a textbook?" Delaware teachers listed: (1) readability; (2) organization; (3) content; (4) scholarship; and (5) maps and illustrations. No teachers indicated that they were concerned with the relationship between textbook content and instructional objectives.

A conflict concerning textbook selection exists between those who advocate evaluation and selection by state adoption committees and those who maintain this should be the prerogative of the individual teacher. Fenton claims that publishers have long been influenced by state adoption policies (1967, p. 63). Exactly what these policies are is difficult to determine. John Lawrence (1961), in conducting a survey of California high schools, discovered that 73 percent of the school districts had no stated guidelines for textbook selection. A considerable number of teachers and administrators stated that texts had not been carefully examined before they were selected, and that the selection process had little relevance to the program of curriculum development. Reasonable conclusions to be drawn from an investigation of this problem are that:

1. The process of effective evaluation and selection of world history texts should be much the same, regardless of whether the evaluator is the individual teacher, school, district, or state adoption committee.
2. Instructional objectives must be clearly defined, and appropriate teaching strategies selected before the individual teacher can begin to evaluate and select a text.
3. The role of the world history course in the social studies curriculum must be established so that a text can be selected which will contribute to curriculum objectives.

One of the greatest problems standing in the way of textbook improvement is that historians have never been very supportive of the idea of teaching world history and have done little work on developing a conceptual framework for the history of man. The world history course slipped into the curriculum by fiat of the administrator, and not by any urgings of the historian. Little hope exists that materials will improve until historians take an interest in developing them.

TABLE 15. COMMENTS ON TEXTS CURRENTLY IN USE IN TEACHING WORLD HISTORY

TEXTBOOK	PAUL D. HINES (1967)	DELAWARE WORLD HISTORY TEACHERS (1968 Delaware Survey)
Living World History	1. Provides adequate coverage of the contributions to mankind by early civilizations in non-Western areas, but treatment given these areas in more modern periods is not so complete. 2. A more complete coverage of the communist takeover of China would also have been desirable. 3. Treatment of Latin America since the "wars of liberation" is also limited. 4. The text's conceptual framework is hard to determine. 5. Majority of review questions are fact oriented. 6. Edwin Fenton's 32 Problems in World History provides excellent supplementary reading. 7. Geography and chronological history apparently form the organizational framework of the text.	1. Supplements pure history with geography. 2. Good survey book. 3. Excellent authors. 4. Well planned and organized. 5. Excellent style and very pictorial. 6. Falls short of its title. 7. Poor maps. 8. Too much simplification.
A Global History of Man (Stavrianos, 1967)	1. Provides superior coverage of the non-Western world without slighting the influence of Europe on world history. 2. One disadvantage is its neglect of the Renaissance.	1. Topical and regional studies are good. 2. Concise according to the "new" social studies approach. 3. Text is sometimes above the 9th grade level.
Men and Nations: A World History (Mazour and Peoples, 1967)	1. Great bulk of material presented does not seem to contribute to the student's understanding and application of the themes outlined in the introductions.	1. Good detail. 2. Maps are adequate but could be larger. 3. Too much emphasis on political aspects at the expense of culture.
Man's Cultural Heritage: A World History (Welty, 1969)	1. Extensive coverage of the great literature of the cultures. 2. Provides a balanced presentation of Western and non-Western cultures.	1. Presents a good general coverage of world history, but deals with Asia in one lump sum rather than by individual units (as in Stavrianos' Global History of Man). 2. Must be supplemented with additional materials.
Story of Nations (Rogers, Adams, and Brown, 1965)	1. Non-Western cultures are reviewed in terms of their importance to Western civilization rather than on the basis of their own cultural importance. 2. Discussion of Latin America is more inconsequential than the treatment given Africa and Asia.	1. Gives students an understanding of various cultures. 2. Nicely colored pictures. 3. Good arrangement. 4. No relation of national events to international ones. 5. At times too detailed for slow readers. 6. Written by educators and not historians.

IX: TEACHER PREPARATION

The advent of the "new social studies" has prompted a re-examination of our college and university teacher-training programs. With the appearance of new objectives, methods, and materials, it has become imperative to prepare social studies teachers to teach in harmony with them. The inter-disciplinary approach characteristic of some of the newer materials has caught many teachers unprepared to use them effectively due to an inadequate academic background and to the lack of relevant in-service training programs. The problem is compounded by rapid developments in instructional technology in which teachers have received little or no training.

Studies conducted since 1956 reveal not only a wide variance in state certification requirements for social studies teachers, but also inadequate preparation in many of the social studies disciplines. Surveys conducted in Kansas (1956) by Sare and Browning (1958) and in Illinois (1959) by Pohlmann and Wellman delineated the problem as it existed at that time.

TABLE 16. PERCENTAGE OF SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHERS FAILING TO MEET STATE CERTIFICATION REQUIREMENTS
(Sare and Browning, 1958; Pohlmann and Wellman, 1960, p. 311)

ILLINOIS		KANSAS	
American History	18%	American History	21%
European History	36%	World History	34%
Political Science	41%	Government	42%
Economics	66%	Economics	36%
Geography	81%	Geography	73%

The Illinois study by Pohlmann and Wellman further revealed that 9.8 percent of the teachers had not taken any course work in European history and that 42 percent had not a single hour of course work in non-Western civilizations.

Presently, state certification requirements for social studies teachers range from a minimum of 24 to 36 semester hours, while certification in individual subjects varies from 6 to 18 semester hours. College and university requirements for a social studies major range from 24 to 60 semester hours, with individual subject majors requiring from 12 to 60 credit hours (McLendon, 1965, p. 517). Studies conducted in Arizona

(Haggerson and Weber, 1963), Arkansas (Peterson, 1967), and Delaware (by Pulliam in 1968) shed light not only on the inability of teachers to meet state requirements, but also on weaknesses in their social studies preparation. It should be noted, however, that social studies teachers are normally better prepared in the field of history than in any other field in the social sciences.

The Delaware and Arkansas surveys revealed an average undergraduate preparation in the social studies of 53.8 and 41.8 hours, respectively. These hours are not, however, evenly distributed among the subjects that make up the social studies. If six hours were used as the minimum certification requirement for each social studies discipline, Delaware teachers would fail to qualify in sociology, geography, and anthropology. Although the Arizona study included both undergraduate and graduate training, strikingly similar results were obtained. The average social studies teacher in Arizona had fewer than six hours in economics, geography, and sociology, and had, as in the cases of Arkansas and Delaware, the least preparation in anthropology.

TABLE 17. AVERAGE ACADEMIC PREPARATION OF SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHERS IN ARIZONA, ARKANSAS, AND DELAWARE
(Haggerson and Weber, 1963, p. 26; Peterson, 1967, p. 155; Pulliam, 1968)

SUBJECT	Arizona (30 hrs. state minimum)* (Grades 9-12)	Arkansas (24 hrs. state minimum)** (Grades 7-12)	Delaware (24 hrs. state minimum) (Grades 7-12)
History	28.4	18.6	27.7
Political Science	9.0	6.6	9.5
Economics	5.7	5.0	6.0
Sociology	5.7	7.0	5.0
Geography	4.4	3.9	3.7
Anthropology	1.2	0.5	1.9
Total Hours	54.4	41.8	53.8

*Undergraduate and graduate hours combined
**Undergraduate hours only

In regard to an undergraduate major, four of the surveys gave the following results shown in Table 18.

Percentages not included above comprise majors in education, a non-history social science discipline, and non-social studies disciplines.

Graduate degrees held by teachers were also surveyed in these four studies. The figures cited in the Arkansas study cannot be used because no specific data were obtained other than that 23 percent of the social studies teachers surveyed held Master's degrees in non-social studies areas. The findings of the other studies are shown in Table 19.

TABLE 18. PERCENTAGE OF TEACHERS HOLDING UNDERGRADUATE MAJORS IN HISTORY AND SOCIAL STUDIES EDUCATION
(Siemers, 1959; Pohlmann and Wellman, 1969; 1968 study by Pulliam)

	California (1959)	Illinois (1959)	Arkansas (1967)	Delaware (1968)
History	18%	37%	30%	42%
Social Studies	19%	29%	30%	26%

TABLE 19. PERCENTAGE OF SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHERS HOLDING MASTER'S DEGREES IN HISTORY, SOCIAL STUDIES, AND EDUCATION
(Siemers, 1959; Pohlmann and Wellman, 1960; 1968 study by Pulliam)

MASTER'S DEGREE	California (1959)	Illinois (1959)	Delaware (1968)
History	12%	23%	30%
Social Studies	5%	13%	10%
Education	21%	20%	10%
Percentage of Social Studies Teachers Holding Master's Degrees	48%	56%	50%

Specific course preparation was studied in Arkansas and Delaware. The areas in which social studies teachers were most deficient in graduate level work were anthropology in Arkansas and economics in Delaware. In each study, no graduate work in these two disciplines was reported by world history teachers surveyed. Other studies cited thus far provide little specific information on course preparation. Regarding history, the

California sample showed that the median number of hours of history preparation was 43. The mean in Arizona was 28.4; in Arkansas, 21.2; and in Delaware, 41.8. Table 20 summarizes the total social studies undergraduate and graduate preparation of teachers in Arizona, Arkansas, and Delaware.

TABLE 20. TOTAL AVERAGE ACADEMIC PREPARATION OF SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHERS IN ARIZONA, ARKANSAS, AND DELAWARE
(Haggerson and Weber, 1963, p. 26; Peterson, pp. 155, 158; 1968 study by Pulliam)

SUBJECT	ARIZONA (1963)	ARKANSAS (1967)	DELAWARE (1968)
History	28.4	21.2	41.8
Political Science	9.0	6.8	10.7
Economics	5.7	6.0	6.0
Sociology	5.7	7.5	5.6
Geography	4.4	4.2	5.9
Anthropology	1.2	0.5	2.5
Total	54.5	46.2	72.5

Specific criticisms of the history preparation of world history teachers focuses primarily on the deficiency in study of the non-Western world. Mehlinger's survey of Kansas world history teachers revealed not only a lack of textbook materials on non-Western civilizations, but also an apparent vacuum in teacher preparation in these areas. According to Mehlinger, "the majority of teachers continue to devote primary attention to European history both early and late and neglect the non-Western world" (1959, p. 65). The Illinois study of 1960 by Pohlmann and Wellman showed that 42 percent of the teachers surveyed had not completed a single course in Latin American, African, or Asian history.

In order to ascertain the nature of this problem in Delaware, teachers surveyed were asked to list specific history courses completed in areas other than American history. Although not all teachers responded to this question, the data obtained are presented in Table 21.

TABLE 21. AVERAGE CREDIT HOURS COMPLETED BY DELAWARE TEACHERS IN NON-AMERICAN HISTORY COURSES
(1968 study by Pulliam)

Ancient History	8.6	Asian History	2.4
Medieval History	6.0	Middle Eastern History	1.5
Modern History	11.0	Latin American History	1.3
Russian History	3.6	Specific foreign country history	2.6
African History	1.6		

Additional analysis of the Delaware survey data reveals that 52 percent of the teachers had not completed a single course in Latin American, African, Middle Eastern, or Asian history.

The data presented above indicate that teacher training is in urgent need of being overhauled on a national basis. John Palmer, writing in New Challenges in the Social Studies (1965, p. 164), summarizes the problem succinctly:

> Few social studies teachers have been or are being prepared to teach any cultures except those in the Graeco-Roman–Western European stream of development. Teachers generally have little to add to the text materials concerning non-Western cultures. There is need for in-service training programs, intensive individual study, and revision of teacher-training curricula to alleviate this situation.

Although historians prefer to consider history as a discipline apart from the other social sciences, such an arrangement is not practicable when speaking in terms of teacher preparation. Thus, of necessity, an analysis of the preparation of world history teachers must be equated with that of social studies teachers. The initial question to be considered is that of the time span of the entire program of teacher training.

In 1968, the AHA recommended a five-year teacher-training program, but at the same time recognized that this was not always possible. In an article appearing in The Social Studies (1967, p. 200) Barry Beyer was more emphatic: "Teachers of social studies cannot be prepared today even to begin to teach competently in less than five years of study and supervised experience." Beyer advocated devoting the four undergraduate years almost exclusively to study of the social sciences, leaving the fifth year for the professional education sequence. But as Fenton (1967) carefully notes, "the day when most states will require five years, or six years as some educators urge, lies decades away and may never arrive at all." In discussing teacher preparation, Fenton draws a clear line between what he calls the training of an adequate social studies teacher in four years and that of an excellent one, the training of which would require a minimum of five years. For the present, the obvious task of our teacher-training institutions is to provide the best possible preparation within the existing framework. As Conant points out in The Education of American Teachers (1963), "What is important is the level of competence, not the number of semester hours."

Various proposals have been put forth as to how the four-year program should be structured. Fenton maintains that able students can be prepared to become adequate teachers of the social studies with from 30 to 40 hours of good course work carefully chosen from among the social sciences. Implied in Fenton's statement is the belief that the average student has no place within the existing programs; further, that even the able student cannot be adequately prepared unless courses are geared specifically to his preparation for being a social studies teacher. A course, for example, dealing with some small segment of American history could hardly be afforded at the expense of a broader, interpretive course in world history.

The AHA recommends (1968, p. 10) that a prospective history teacher complete a 33-credit major with the goal of taking "history courses of high quality whose subject matter provides cultural and chronological breadth, coupled with indepth study of one or more societies or periods." The AHA proposal provides for 15 hours in American history and the remaining 18 hours in studies other than American history. If a student were to take the standard six hours in Western civilizations, this would leave only 12 hours in which to survey non-Western civilizations. Thus, the in-depth study

called for must be accomplished in large measure through study in closely related fields. To this end, the AHA recommends an additional 27 hours in related fields. Combined with the 33-credit major, this would constitute a total preparation of 60 hours in history and the social sciences.

James Conant's four-year program for social studies teachers includes 42 hours in history, six each in geography, economics, and political science, and three credits each in sociology and anthropology (1963, p. 172). In view of the increasing emphasis upon an interdisciplinary approach to the social studies, both the AHA's and Conant's proposals appear to be weighted too heavily in favor of history. Such programs could be viable provided that history courses taught to in-training teachers took an interdisciplinary approach. The fact remains, however, that for the most part, history instruction in our colleges and universities (especially in the survey courses) is as woeful as that in the high schools.

Generally speaking, education courses have been the laughing stock of both students and in-service teachers. World history teachers in the 1968 Delaware survey, as well as teachers across the nation, invariably reported an intense dissatisfaction with education courses as they are presently constituted. Much of the criticism stems from the tendency of many instructors to include an excessive amount of theory in their courses, rather than to provide practical knowledge or tools which teachers can employ in the classroom. The primary issue, therefore, is one of relevance. Beyer maintains that courses such as Educational Psychology and Human Growth and Development can be made more relevant by student-teaching experience with pupils via observation, interviews, and other activities in the schools of the pupils studied. Thus, the emphasis must clearly be upon gearing these courses to the realities of the teaching experience. Those courses which have been criticized most frequently, but which continue to be considered essential by educators, are Educational Psychology, Human Growth and Development, and Sociological Foundations of Education. Other courses critiqued, but generally afforded a more favorable treatment by students, are student teaching and the methods course.

Methods courses have been met with mixed emotions. Some have been termed a waste of time, while others have been considered a valuable asset.

Beyer notes that few methods courses deal with the actual essence of teaching—the planning, execution and evaluation of specific teaching strategies. In addition, they are invariably taught from expository textbooks, many of which are as dull as most high school social studies texts. Fenton notes that many methods texts lag at least half-a-decade behind the work of the curriculum projects. A part of the problem stems from the inability of many methods instructors to obtain sufficient quantities of the latest materials, including those of the various curriculum projects.

Many recommendations have been made concerning ways of improving the methods course. Conant (1963, p. 268) found in surveying the professional education requirements of 27 colleges and universities that 74 percent of them require three or four semester hours in methods of teaching. Five of the institutions required methods courses in both the major and minor fields. The typical practice of education faculties is to have the methods course precede student teaching, although five schools offered the course concurrently with student teaching.

The AHA program (1968) provides for a two-credit methods course—"teaching history in secondary schools." It recommends that a prospective teacher take the course during the semester preceding his student-teaching experience. The AHA recommends that this course be taught not simply by instructors who are closely associated with student-teaching, but who have actually taught history in the secondary schools.

Beyer's proposal calls for two methods courses, one preceding and one following the student teaching experience. According to Beyer (1967, p. 202), these courses "should stress analysis of and practice in designing and using the inductive problem-solving and discovery strategies of social studies teaching; their appropriate instructional techniques such as questioning, discussion leading, and evaluation, and their associated instructional media and materials."

A review of the literature treating the social studies methods course and the results of the 1968 Delaware survey point toward the following recommendations:

1. Methods courses should precede the student teaching experience.

2. An increased emphasis should be placed upon training in instructional technology.
3. Methods courses should be taught inductively so that students can see their instructors practicing what they preach.
4. Methods courses should be expanded to include specific training in the teaching of each social science discipline.
5. Methods courses should be taught by university faculty members in conjunction with a practicing secondary school social studies teacher from the community who is involved in the supervision of student teachers.

Student-teaching has been widely acclaimed as a valuable experience, and one which is indispensible to the process of teacher education. Requirements for this course vary from state to state and even within metropolitan areas. Conant's 1963 survey discovered minimum clock-hour requirements ranging from 110 to as high as 250. One school in the survey which specified 110 hours granted the same credit as another institution requiring 220 clock-hours (p. 270). Despite the variances, the typical practice employed is to equate one semester hour of credit with approximately thirty clock-hours of observation and practice teaching.

Although favorably received, student-teaching combined with other education courses has been subject to criticism. One area of discussion has been whether the organization of the course should be on a part-time or full-time basis. While the former permits a greater continuity in the student's training program, the latter allows him to function independently of he conflict of university versus student-teaching requirements. This issue is not, however, one of the more pressing problems concerning world history instruction.

A more practical consideration is the dichotomy which exists between what students are told to do in their methods courses and what cooperating teachers permit them to do. Often cooperating teachers are hostile to some aspects of the new social studies methods practiced by some student teachers, or they may fail to appreciate their merit. This situation exists in part due to the failure of most institutions of higher learning to initiate in-service programs whereby cooperating teachers are kept abreast of the latest developments in curricular changes and methods and materials. Qualitative improvement in world history and social studies instruction is therefore linked closely to in-service training and activities.

Evidence exists that problems posed by the new social studies are recognized by many administrators and classroom teachers. In-service workshops and state curriculum meetings are being held with increasing frequency. The results of these meetings are not as great as one might hope, however. As Fenton notes (1967, p. 116), "Teachers almost never read in preparation for these meetings, nor do they receive from speakers sample materials or practical guides for the conduct of class discussion." Fenton argues that teacher institutes organized as such on a one- or two-day basis are of little value. Considerable success has resulted, however, from programs in which schools have introduced experimental units from recent curriculum projects.

Another facet of in-service training is that of work toward a graduate degree. Although graduate work is, of course, highly recommended, certain aspects have evoked critical comment. An area of vital concern is the integration of the undergraduate and graduate programs. Part of the problem stems from the practice of many teachers of selecting courses which would yield credit with a minimum of effort, rather than selecting ones which would develop their abilities as social studies teachers. A teacher, for example, with a history preparation oriented toward Western civilizations, if not properly guided, is prone to perpetuate his specialization by completing graduate courses in the same area. An effort must be made, therefore, to steer such a teacher toward a more rounded preparation by encouraging or requiring him to take courses in non-Western civilizations. Factors responsible for the more narrow than desired specialization of our world history teachers are the structure of graduate programs in education and the inability of many institutions to offer high quality courses in non-Western studies at the graduate level.

The relations between education and liberal arts faculty members, on one hand, and between university personnel and public school teachers, on the other, constitute two other areas of criticism. Relations between university faculty and school teachers have been characterized by a lack of communication. This problem was clearly defined in an article by Ira Marienhoff in the April, 1967, issue of the AHA Newsletter (p. 16):

> It is also time for professors of history to recognize that some of the secondary-school teachers whom they have trained have sound and workable ideas about instruction and ought to be given a careful hearing. Finally, it is long past time for history professors to meet and effect working relations with professors of education, and for them both to collaborate more closely with high school history teachers on an ongoing basis.

Attempts to bridge this gap were initiated in 1954, when the AHA established a Committee on Teaching, consisting of history teachers at the university and secondary levels. Since then, secondary school teachers and college and university faculty have cooperated in the Advanced Placement Program in history and in the development of new materials and curricula for secondary schools. This increased cooperation is further evidenced by the numerous NDEA institutes which have been held on university campuses in recent years. These institutes have generally ranged in length from four to nine weeks, and 1965-1967, inclusive, they included participation of 82 to 113 departments of history in colleges and universities (AHA, 1968, p. 23).

Despite the progress to date, much still needs to be done. The AHA, in its pamphlet Preparation of Secondary School History Teachers, makes several recommendations which could help to effect closer liaison between secondary school history teachers and college and university history professors (1968, pp. 25-26). According to the AHA, university history professors should:

1. Take an active part in programs of preparation for secondary school teachers of history; an active part in classes in history and in the methods course, the student-teaching program, and in the establishment of requirements for certification.
2. Organize summer, or year-long, institutes, or classes available at times when teachers can take them, to assist secondary school teachers to increase and refresh their knowledge of history.
3. Help to secure better teaching materials for secondary school classes in history.
4. Help to convince school administrators and the general public of the importance of lighter teaching loads and sabbatical leaves for secondary school teachers, so that teachers can increase and enrich their knowledge of history.
5. Help to convince school administrators of the importance of assigning only well-prepared teachers to history classes.
6. Accept invitations to work with secondary school history classes, history clubs, or groups of secondary school teachers of history.

Secondary school teachers, the AHA said, should:

1. Make college teachers aware of the new methods of teaching that have been so successful in the high school.
2. Help college teachers understand the values and attitudes of the young people, so many of whom are bound for college.
3. Suggest ways in which the colleges can avoid the dull and pointless repetition of history courses already given in high schools.
4. Help colleges and universities with their programs of teacher training.

These suggestions cannot be brought to fruition, however, unless they are acted upon by individuals with strong professional attitudes and motivation. Unfortunately, these qualities are lacking in many instances.

The average world history teacher in Delaware has 8.2 years of teaching experience, while his Arkansas counterpart has 11 years. Delaware teachers have taught world history in 5.2 of the 812 years of total American teaching experience. In addition to world history, Delaware teachers teach Problems of Democracy, Civics, and American History courses, in that order of frequency. Peterson's 1967 Arkansas survey showed physical education, mathematics, Spanish, and typing as non-social studies subjects being taught by world history teachers in that state.

Significant evidence was uncovered in Arkansas and Delaware to reflect teacher apathy toward the problems of the world history course and the social studies in general. It was found that, among Arkansas teachers, 70 percent had not engaged in any special programs designed for the study and/or improvement of world history instruction. In addition, 30 percent did no professional reading in the area of world history instruction, and only ten percent read NCSS publications on a regular basis (see Peterson, 1967, p. 160).

The Delaware questionnaire showed that 64 percent of the teachers surveyed had not attended meetings sponsored by either the NCSS or the Delaware Council for the Social Studies during the 1967-68 school year. Only six percent of the teachers in the Delaware survey had attended meetings sponsored by both groups. Table 22 lists membership of Delaware and Arkansas world history teachers in major professional organizations.

TABLE 22. MEMBERSHIP OF DELAWARE AND ARKANSAS WORLD HISTORY TEACHERS IN PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS (Peterson, 1967, pp. 159-160)

PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATION	ARKANSAS	DELAWARE
National Education Association	50%	36%
State Education Associations	30%	50%
National Council for the Social Studies	23%	36%
State Council for the Social Studies	6%	32%

The problem of how to improve world history instruction at the secondary school level is not going to be an easy one to solve. It will take the concerted effort of historians, educators, and teachers. The fact is, however, something must be done—and done shortly—or world history, as well as history in general, will no longer be a part of the school curriculum.

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